



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

EDUCATIONAL WORKS

BY DR JAMES DOUGLAS,

TEACHER OF ENGLISH, GREAT KING STREET, EDINBURGH;

PUBLISHED BY

OLIVER AND BOYD, EDINBURGH;

SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, AND CO., LONDON.

THE PROGRESSIVE ENGLISH READER,

A NEW SERIES OF ENGLISH READING BOOKS.

The Earlier Books illustrated with numerous Engravings.

FIRST BOOK,	24 pages, . . .	Price 0s. 2d.
SECOND BOOK,	54 pages, . . .	" 0s. 4d.
THIRD BOOK,	180 pages, . . .	" 1s. 0d.
FOURTH BOOK,	224 pages, . . .	" 1s. 6d.
FIFTH BOOK,	256 pages, . . .	" 2s. 0d.
SIXTH BOOK,	334 pages, . . .	" 2s. 6d.

The arrangement of these Reading Books is systematically *progressive*. From the simplest sounds the pupil is led to the most difficult combinations, but so easy and gradual is his progress, that he acquires the art of reading without undergoing that drudgery which is inevitable with books arranged on a less methodical and systematic plan. Each new form, when introduced, is illustrated by numerous examples, and whenever words occur whose pronunciation differs from the ordinary rules, a *Key* is given, so that the correct pronunciation may at once be ascertained.

The **First, Second, Third, and Fourth Books** are illustrated with numerous engravings, which are calculated not only to please the eye but afford instruction on objects which are better understood by being seen than copiously described. In the selection of reading lessons care has been taken to adapt them specially to the capacities of those for whom the different books of the series are intended. Throughout, they will be found of such a character as to inculcate high moral principle, and otherwise tend to the religious and intellectual training of the young.

In the **Fifth and Sixth Books**, a systematic rather than a promiscuous arrangement of subjects has been adopted. Accordingly, in the former, the lessons are grouped under the following heads:—1. Illustrations of Moral and Religious Principles; 2. Stories of the Sagacity and Instinct of Animals; 3. Incidents of Travel and Adventure; 4. Natural Objects and their Uses; 5. Miscellaneous Subjects. In the **Sixth Book**, the subjects illustrated are:—1. Miscellaneous; 2. Descriptive Scenes at Home and Abroad; 3. Curiosities

DR DOUGLAS'S EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

of Travel; 4. Curious Objects in Natural History; 5. Prominent Events in British History; 6. Illustrations of the Divine Wisdom, Power, and Goodness. This last is a new feature in a work of this kind, but, it is hoped, it will be found more generally interesting than the abstruse and scientific extracts with which so many of our reading books abound.

In the Fifth Book is a detailed list of Prefixes and Affixes, and in the Sixth, are Spelling and Dictation Exercises, arranged on a new plan, which will be found particularly useful to those who are preparing for the civil or military examinations, or to others deficient in a knowledge of the orthography of their mother tongue.

During the progress of the different "Books" through the press, the utility of the plan pursued has been tested by teachers in various parts of the country, and the following are a few of many recommendations which have been received:—

"Superior to any I have met with for careful systematic gradation, while the matter is such as must irresistibly enlist the sympathies of the pupils, and induce a love of all that is pure and noble."—*Rev. W. Ogilvie, Head Master, Morrison's Institution, Crieff.*

"Your series is, to my mind, the best of the many that have lately been published."—*W. G. Mason, Esq., late Master of Method, Training College, Winchester.*

"I have used the earlier books of your series, and never have I been able to record such satisfactory progress on the part of pupils, which I attribute in no small degree to the class-books used."—*James Scott, Esq., Head Master, Lochies House School, Baratisland.*

"A series of Reading Books, at once calculated to give the pupil a taste for reading, and save the instructor a vast amount of trouble."—*James M'Lachlan, Esq., Head Master, Newington Academy, Edinburgh.*

"An admirable series of Reading Books. Certainly the best I have ever seen."—*John E. Hogan, Esq., Hoxton Middle Class School, London.*

"They possess excellencies which will recommend them, and obtain for them a wide circulation."—*The Head Master, English Department, Royal Academy, Inverness.*

"Particularly instructive and interesting, and cannot fail to produce a marked improvement in reading wherever they may be introduced."—*The Head Master, Foundation Schools, Staunton on Wye.*

In 12mo, 208 pages, price 1s. 6d.

SELECTIONS FOR RECITATION,

WITH INTRODUCTORY AND EXPLANATORY NOTES;

Compiled for the Use of Elementary Schools.

"The Selections have this admirable advantage, that they are of pieces which have not been hackneyed by immemorial use, and are therefore admirably adapted to familiarize the young with some of the best poetry of their own time."—*Edinburgh Weekly Review.*

"An admirable work for Junior Classes. I shall very gladly recommend its use when I can, and I heartily wish it much success."—*Dr W. F. Collier, English Master, Edinburgh Academy.*

"Drawn up with care and judgment, and well adapted to the purposes for which you intend it."—*The Head Master, Archbishop Holgate's School, York.*

[For other Works, see end of Book.]



600075138U

HISTORY
OF
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

226. K. 94.

12

10

8

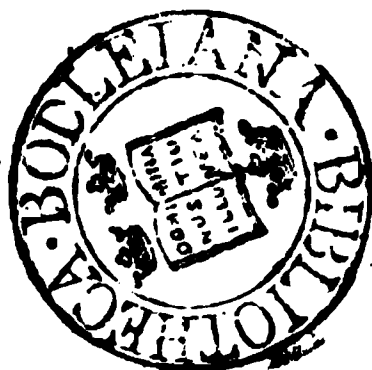
GREAT BRITAIN

HISTORY
OF
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND ;
WITH
An Account
OF THE
PRESENT STATE AND RESOURCES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM
AND ITS COLONIES.

For the Use of Schools and Private Students.

By HENRY WHITE,
B.A. TRINITY COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, M. A. AND PH. DR. HEIDELBERG ;
Author of "Elements of Universal History," "History of France," etc

EIGHTEENTH EDITION.



EDINBURGH:
OLIVER AND BOYD, TWEEDDALE COURT.
LONDON: SIMPKIN MARSHALL, AND CO.

1868.

Price Three Shillings.

226. k. 94.

DR WHITE'S SCHOOL HISTORIES.

ENGLAND for JUNIOR CLASSES, 180 pages, 1s. 6d. bound.

SCOTLAND for JUNIOR CLASSES, 160 pages, 1s. 6d. bound.

SCOTLAND for SENIOR CLASSES, 401 pages, 3s. 6d. bound.

GREAT BRITAIN and IRELAND, 502 pages, 3s. 6d. bound.

FRANCE, 390 pages, 3s. 6d. bound.

SACRED HISTORY, 187 pages, 1s. 6d. bound.

ROME, 160 pages, 1s. 6d. bound.

OUTLINES of UNIVERSAL HISTORY, 264 pages, 2s. bound.

ELEMENTS of UNIVERSAL HISTORY, 708 pages, 7s. bound.

This Work may also be had in Three separate Parts, each complete in itself, price 2s. 6d. bound.

PREFACE.

THE following pages are intended for the instruction of those whose time and opportunities at school are limited, or who have not the means of purchasing larger works containing the histories of the three kingdoms which compose the British Empire. The best and most recent authorities have been followed, and the narrative has been carefully brought down to the latest period.

Should it be objected that there are already too many school-histories of England, and that another is not wanted, it may be sufficient to reply that some of these had become old-fashioned; and that, in order to adapt them to the requirements of the age, it had been found necessary so to change, correct, and annotate them, that, like the ship of Theseus, scarcely a portion of the original remained. The author would further add, that the method upon which this little volume has been written is such as to occupy ground hitherto unappropriated. In its pages the history of Scotland before the Union is treated of separately and as amply as its importance deserves. A similar course could not be pursued in recording the events of Irish history, because, so far as they are necessary to be known by an ordinary reader, they are inseparable from those of England. Special chapters have been devoted to the origin of the British nation, its language and literature. The same arrangement has

been followed with respect to our colonial dependencies, and also in describing the present condition of the kingdom. The information supplied in Chapter XL. has been prepared with very great care, and is intended to present a faithful picture of the material position of the empire. Such a collection of figures may make the reading somewhat dry; but, like the items in a merchant's balance-sheet, without them we can never know our real position or estimate our real wealth.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon the importance of the study of history—particularly the history of our own country. From it we learn not only what our forefathers thought and did, but their failures and errors are a warning to ourselves; while the glories they have achieved, the freedom they have won, are an appeal to us neither to disgrace the one nor forfeit the other. The young reader should not forget, as he studies the following pages, that less than four hundred years ago several continental nations were far in advance of England in the arts and luxuries of life, in social and political well-being. Here he will learn, very briefly indeed, how it is, that while Spain, Italy, France, and even Germany—the first especially—have fallen behind in the race, this country has gradually attained the noble pre-eminence she now enjoys of “teaching the nations how to live.” This political independence was not the fruit of repeated revolutions, of sweeping massacres and confiscations, of blood-stained victories, or diplomatic manœuvres; but it was won by the calm and patient energies of an earnest, religious, and law-loving people—of a people who cling fondly to the recollections of the past even while altering their institutions to meet the wants of the future. And it is in order to show this more plainly that much miscellaneous matter has been introduced throughout the volume,

so as to present a faithful picture of the British Empire through all the phases of its greatness.

With no desire to interfere with the methods adopted and approved of by other teachers, the author would direct their special attention to the questions appended to each chapter. These being intended not only to bring out the narrative fully, but also to test the industry and intelligence of the learner, they should not be answered with a mere "yes" or "no," or in the exact words of the text; but the pupil should be encouraged to reply in his own fashion and in his own language. The study of Chronology and Geography should accompany that of history: the first loses its repulsiveness when combined with the narrative; without the other, our knowledge of many peculiarities in the history of our own country and of our colonies must necessarily be imperfect.

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

THE FABULOUS HISTORIANS.....Page 1

CHAPTER I.

THE BRITONS AND THE ROMANS.

Imperfection of early Accounts of Great Britain—Smallness of the Population—Their Divisions—Surface of the Country—Druidical Circles—Arms and Fortifications—Native Money—Religion—Julius Cæsar—Cassivellaunus—Caractacus—Boadicea—Julius Agricola—Galgacus—The Roman Walls—British Independence, Carausius—Ambrosius and Vortigern—Roman Relics in Britain—Progress in Civilisation—Introduction of Christianity..... 5

CHAPTER II.

ENGLAND FROM THE SAXON INVASION TO THE END OF THE HEPTARCHY, 449—825.

Origin of the Saxon Tribes—Their Character and Habits—First Appearance in Britain—Saxon Heptarchy—The Bretwalda—Saxon Religion and Mythology—Thor—Mission of Augustine—Rapid Progress of Christianity among the Saxons—Internal Wars—End of the Heptarchy ... 17

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE END OF THE HEPTARCHY TO THE DEATH OF ALFRED, A. D. 825—901.

Egbert, king of England—First Danish Invasions—Description of the Danes—Battle of Hengsdown Hill—Ethelwulf's and Ethelred's Conflicts with the Danes—Alfred the Great—His early Perils—Retreat in the Island of Athelney—Destruction of the Danish Army—Hasting's Incursions—State of Learning and Religion at Alfred's Accession—Eminent Scholars at his Court—His Literary Works—Political and Social Arrangements—Trial by Jury..... 23

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE DEATH OF ALFRED TO CANUTE'S INVASION, A. D. 901—1016.

Ethelwald—Dunstan and Odo—Edgar the Pacific—Peculiarities of the Anglo-Saxon Church—Edward the Martyr—Danish Invasions under Sweyn—Dane-geld—Massacre of Saint Brice—Sweyn's Revenge—Thurkill the Dane—Ethelred and Sweyn—Saxon Trade and Exports...30

CHAPTER V.

**FROM THE ACCESSION OF CANUTE TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST,
A. D. 1016—1066.**

Canute—Danish Emigration—Anglo-Danish Code—Canute's Pilgrimage to Rome—Harold and Hardicanute—Edward the Confessor—Norman Influence at the Court—Rebellion of Earl Godwin—Rise of Harold's Power—Harold—Defeat of the Norwegian Invaders—William, duke of Normandy—Battle of Hastings—Condition of England—Learning and Literature—Manners and Customs of the Anglo-Saxons—Commerce and Manufactures..... 38

CHAPTER VI.

• EARLY HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

Strathclyde Britons—The Highlands—The Picts and Scots—England and Scotland before the Norman Conquest—Diffusion of the Saxon Race through Scotland—The Danes—Macbeth—Conversion of Scotland to Christianity—St Columba.....54

CHAPTER VII.

EARLY HISTORY OF IRELAND.

Antiquity of the Irish Race—Ossian—Christianity introduced—Saint Patrick—Primitive Irish Church—Learning—John Scotus—Danish Invasions—Brian Boru—Malachi of the Golden Collar.....59

CHAPTER VIII.

THE DIFFERENT RACES AND THEIR LANGUAGES.

Early Inhabitants of the British Isles—Celts and Goths—Antiquity of the English Language—Various Dialects of Great Britain—Norman French—Greek and Latin—Saxon—Saxon Names of Persons and Places—Celtic Names—Superiority of the Gothic over the Celtic Race.....64

CHAPTER IX.

ENGLAND DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR,
A. D. 1066—1087.

William the Conqueror—Submission of London—Norman Spoliation—Rewards bestowed on the Conquerors—Saxon Revolt under Earl Morcar—Hereward the Saxon—Death of William I.—Domesday-book—The Forest Laws—The Church.....Page 71

CHAPTER X.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF WILLIAM RUFUS TO THE DEATH OF STEPHEN,
A. D. 1087—1154.

William Rufus—Rebellion of Odo—Revolt of Northumbria—The New Forest—Henry I.—Robert Duke of Normandy—The Count of Breteuil—Death of Prince William—State of Learning and the Church—Arts and Manufactures—Stephen—Battle of the Standard—Matilda's Invasion—Treaty of Winchester.....78

CHAPTER XI.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY II. TO THE DEATH OF JOHN,
A. D. 1154—1216.

Henry II.—Thomas à Becket—Differences with the Clergy—Council of Clarendon—Murder of Becket—Conquest of Ireland—Laws of Inheritance—Condition of the Church—Civil and Political State of Ireland—Strongbow's Expedition—Henry recognised Lord-paramount—Commerce and Trade of England—Richard I.—Persecution of the Jews—The Crusades—Taking of Acre—Richard's Captivity—Prince John's Rebellion—Condition of England—Robin Hood—John—Prince Arthur's Murder—War with France—Dispute with the Pope—The Great Charter—Louis of France—Death of John—Commerce and Arts—Learning and Education.....88

CHAPTER XII.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY III. TO THE DEATH OF
EDWARD II., A. D. 1216—1327.

Henry III.—Prince Louis returns to France—Rivalry of Peter des Roches and Hubert de Burgh—Parliament refuses Supplies—Solemn Confirmation of the Great Charter—Mad Parliament—Representative System—The Three Estates—Battle of Evesham—Edward I.—Attempt on his Life at Jaffa—Invasion of Wales—Scottish and French Wars—Oppressions of the Jews—Edward II.—Piers de Gaveston—The Ordainers—Gaveston's Execution—Unsuccessful War in Scotland—Progress of Edward Bruce in Ireland—Hugh Despenser—The Fate of Lancaster—Coalition against Edward—Death of the Despensers—Murder of the King at Berkeley Castle.... 111

CHAPTER XIII.

SCOTLAND FROM THE ARRIVAL OF THE NORMANS TO THE END OF THE
WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, A. D. 1066—1314.

Kingdom of Scotland—Homage—Malcolm III.—William the Lion—Alexander III.—The Invasion of Haco—Battle of Largs—The Maiden of Norway—Disputes on the Succession to the Crown—Baliol and Bruce—Relations between People of England and Scotland—Norman Aristocracy—Baliol asserts his Independence—William Wallace—The Defeat at Falkirk—Robert Bruce—Victory of Bannockburn—Effect of this unnatural War..... Page 124

CHAPTER XIV.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD III. TO THE DEATH OF
RICHARD II., A. D. 1327—1399.

Edward III.—Execution of Mortimer—Battle of Halidon Hill—Disputes on the Succession to the French Crown—James von Artaveldt and the Flemish Revolt—Victories of Crecy and of Neville's Cross—The Black Prince—Victory of Poitiers—Reforms—Purveyance—Constitution of Parliament—Exactions of the Papal See—Wickliffe—The Black Plague—State of Society—Sumptuary Laws—Richard II.—Capitation Tax—Wat Tiler's Insurrection—War with Scotland—*The Wonderful Parliament*—Battle of Otterburn—State of Ireland—Deposition of the King—Parliamentary Resistance against the Pope—Statute of *Præmunire*....138

CHAPTER XV.

THE DYNASTY OF LANCASTER, A. D. 1399—1461.

Henry IV.—Origin of the House of York—War with Scotland—Revolt of the Percys—War with France—Parliament—The Lollards—Martyrdom of Sawtre and Thorpe—Henry V.—Lord Cobham—Invasion of France—Battle of Agincourt—Treaty of Troyes—Ecclesiastical History—Peculiar Religious Observances—Description of the English Clergy—Henry VI.—Battle of Crevant—Siege of Orleans—Joan of Arc—Jack Cade—Duke of York made Protector—Wars of the Roses—Battle of St Alban's—Warwick the Kingmaker—Battles of Wakefield and Barnet.....158

CHAPTER XVI.

THE DYNASTY OF YORK, A. D. 1461—1485.

Edward IV.—Battle of Towton—Queen Margaret—Punishment of Sir Ralph Gray—Marriage with Elizabeth Woodville—Captivity and Escape of the King—Restoration of Henry—Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury—War with France—Treaty of Pecquigny—Murder of the Duke of Clarence—Edward V.—Regency of Gloucester—Execution of Hastings—Sermon at Paul's Cross—Richard III.—Murder of the Royal Princes—Insurrection against the Usurper—Battle of Bosworth—Progress of the People—Importance of English Commerce—Foreign Trade of Scotland and Ireland181

CHAPTER XVII.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE TUDOR DYNASTY TO THE DEATH OF
HENRY VIII., A. D. 1485—1547.

Henry VII.—Irish Rebellion—Lambert Simnel—Perkin Warbeck—Execution of Lord Stanley—Warbeck in Scotland—His Landing in Cornwall—Earl of Warwick beheaded—Marriage of Prince Arthur—Henry's matrimonial Projects—Policy of his Government—Voyages of Discovery—Extortions of Dudley and Empson—Henry VIII.—War with France—Battle of the Spurs—Flodden—Cardinal Wolsey—Field of the Cloth of Gold—Henry named Defender of the Faith—War with France—Oppressive Taxation—The King's matrimonial Scruples—Fall of Wolsey—Cranmer and Cromwell—Severance from Rome—Divorce and Marriage with Anne Boleyn—The Holy Maid of Kent—Papal Bull—Execution of Anne Boleyn—Henry marries Jane Seymour—Religious Changes—Translation of the Bible—Aske's Rebellion—Confiscation of Church Property—The Pole Family—The Bloody Statute—Anne of Cleves—Fate of Catherine Howard—Wales united to England—Irish Insurrection—Catherine Parr—Capture of Boulogne—Henry's Financial Schemes—Execution of the Earl of Surrey.....Page 196

CHAPTER XVIII.

SCOTLAND FROM THE RESTORATION OF INDEPENDENCE TO THE DEATH OF
JAMES V., 1529—1542.

King Robert Bruce—Scottish Independence—Douglas and the King's Heart—David II.—The Stewart Race—The Duke of Rothesay—Battle of Harlaw—The Foul Raid—Death of the Regent Albany—James I.—Legislative Reforms—Rebellion of the Lord of the Isles—Murder of the King—James II.—Turbulence of the Douglasses—Overthrow of the Livingston Faction—Siege of Roxburgh—James III.—War with England—Conspiracy of the great Barons at Lauder—Archibald Bell-the-Cat—Civil War—Murder of the King—James IV.—Perkin Warbeck at the Scottish Court—Battle of Flodden—James V.—Albany made Regent—Hostile Factions and English Intrigues—The Douglas Family banished—Meeting of the Army—Death of the King223

CHAPTER XIX.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD VI. TO THE DEATH OF
MARY, A. D. 1547—1588.

Edward VI.—The Protector Somerset—Ecclesiastical Commission of Inquiry—Reforms in Religion—Condition of the Poor—Mendicity Act—Agrarian Insurrection—Intrigues of Warwick and Execution of Somerset—Romanist Bishops ejected from their Sees—Northumberland's ambitious Schemes—Mary—Lady Jane Grey—Restoration of the Romish Worship—Marriage with Philip of Spain—Insurrections against the Marriage—Execution of Lady Jane Grey—Reconciliation with the Papal See—Character of Bishop Gardiner—Persecutions—Loss of Calais—England under Mary238

CHAPTER XX.

THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH, A. D. 1558—1603.

Establishment of the Reformed Doctrines—Rise of the Puritans—Maritime Enterprise—Continental Alliances with Protestantism—War in Ireland—Death of the Queen of Scots—The Invincible Armada—Expedition to Spain and Portugal—Irish Rebellion—Earl of Essex—Character of Elizabeth's Reign—Sir Thomas Gresham—Progress of Commerce and Discovery—Literary History.....Page 249

CHAPTER XXI.

SCOTLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF MARY TO THE UNION OF THE CROWNS, A. D. 1542—1603.

The Regency—Martyrdom of Wishart—Battle of Pinkey—The Queen-dowager—The Reformation—Mary's Return to Scotland—Darnley—Rizzio—Bothwell—Mary seeks Refuge in England—Northern Insurrection—Assassination of Earl Murray—Execution of Queen Mary—James VI.—The Gowry Conspiracy.....260

CHAPTER XXII.

HOUSE OF STEWART.—JAMES I., A. D. 1603—1625.

James I.—Foreign Alliances—Conference at Hampton Court—Episcopacy in Scotland—Doctrine of *Divine Right*—Gunpowder Plot—Resistance of the Commons—Ireland—Carr and Villiers—Fate of Sir Walter Raleigh—James's Matrimonial Projects—War with Spain—Character of James I.—Literature273

CHAPTER XXIII.

CHARLES I. TO THE LONG PARLIAMENT, A. D. 1625—1640.

Charles I.—Marriage with Henrietta of France—Contest with the Commons—War with France—Petition of Rights—Murder of Buckingham—Siege of Rochelle—Rise of Strafford—Condition of Ireland—Ship-Money—Laud—Religious Disturbances in Scotland—The Covenant—Scottish War.....283

CHAPTER XXIV.

FROM THE MEETING OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES I., A. D. 1640—1649.

The Long Parliament—Impeachment of Strafford—Massacre in Ireland—The Remonstrance—Impeachment of the Five Members—Commencement of the Civil War—Cromwell—Scottish Army enters England—Battle of Marston Moor—The Independents—The Self-denying Ordinance—Trial and Execution of the King293

CHAPTER XXV

THE COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATE, A. D. 1649—1660.

The Commonwealth—War in Ireland—Montrose—Prince Charles in Scotland—Battles of Dunbar and Worcester—Dutch War—Expulsion of the Long Parliament—The Protectorate—Richard Cromwell—Tolerant Principles of the Independents—Rise of the QuakersPage 303

CHAPTER XXVI.

CHARLES II., A. D. 1660—1685.

The Restoration—Act of Uniformity—Fire of London—Persecution in Scotland—The Cabal Ministry—The Triple Alliance—The Test Act—Dutch War—The Popish Plot—Habeas Corpus Act—Whig and Tory—Whig Conspiracies—Executions of Russell and Sidney.....310

CHAPTER XXVII.

JAMES II. TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION,
A. D. 1685—1688.

James II.—Rebellions of Argyle and Monmouth—The Bloody Assize—James's despotic Measures—Illegal Suspension of the Test Act—The Dispensing Power—Attack upon the Church—Proceedings of the High Commission—Declaration of Indulgence—The Universities—Scotland—Second Declaration of Indulgence—Remonstrance of the Bishops.....317

CHAPTER XXVIII.

JAMES II. FROM THE COMMENCEMENT TO THE COMPLETION OF THE
REVOLUTION, A. D. 1688—1689.

Trial of the Bishops—Birth of the Prince of Wales—Condition of the Army—The Prince of Orange—State of Ireland—Lillibulero—Desertion of the Courtiers—Prince George of Denmark—Flight of the King—Disturbances in London—The Convention—Declaration of Rights—Election of William III. and Queen Mary—Scotland325

CHAPTER XXIX.

HOUSE OF ORANGE.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE DEATH OF WILLIAM III.,
A. D. 1689—1702.

William and Mary—Resistance in Scotland—Battles of Killiecrankie and Boyne Water—Massacre of Glencoe—War with France—Treaty of Ryswick—Jealousy of the Commons—Act of Succession—The Darien Expedition.....332

CHAPTER XXX.

HOUSE OF STEWART.—ANNE, A. D. 1702—1714.

New Ministry—Renewal of War with France—Marlborough's Successes—
The Occasional Conformity Bill—Battle of Blenheim—Capture of Gib-
raltar—The Union of England and Scotland—Battles of Ramillies,
Oudenarde, and Malplaquet—Mrs Masham—Dr Sacheverel—New Tory
Ministry—Peace of Utrecht—Church of ScotlandPage 337

CHAPTER XXXI.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.—GEORGE I., A. D. 1714—1727.

Dynasty of Hanover—George I.—His first Parliament—Sir William Wynd-
ham—Impeachment of Lords Oxford and Bolingbroke—Scottish Rebel-
lion of 1715—The Septennial Act—Swedish Plot in favour of the Pretender
—War with Spain—The South Sea Scheme—Jacobite Plot—War with
Germany—Rise of the Methodists.....346

CHAPTER XXXII.

GEORGE II., A. D. 1727—1760.

Sir Robert Walpole—The Excise Scheme—The Patriots or Country Party—
Rupture with Spain—Failure at Carthagená—Walpole's Retirement—
Austrian Succession War—Battle of Dettingen—Naval Fight off Toulon
—Return of Anson from the South Seas—Fontenoy—Rebellion of 1745
—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Colony of Nova Scotia founded—Seven
Years' War—Execution of Admiral Byng—Ministry of Pitt—Colonial
Wars—Conquest of Canada354

CHAPTER XXXIII.

GEORGE III. TO THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR, A. D. 1760—1783.

Eastern Conquests—The Family Compact—The Bute Ministry—Peace of
Paris—Wilkes and the North Briton—The Stamp Act—Disturbances in
the North American Colonies—Ministry of Lord North—Revolt of the
Colonies—War of Independence—Surrender of Lord Cornwallis.....367

CHAPTER XXXIV.

FROM THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR TO THE TREATY OF AMIENS,
A. D. 1780—1802.

No Popery Riots—Coalition Ministry—William Pitt—Irish Volunteers
—Impeachment of Warren Hastings—The King's first Illness—Nootka
Sound Dispute—The French Revolution—The Birmingham Riots—Dr
Priestley—War with France—Lord Howe's Victory—Trial of Horne
Tooke—War with Spain—Battles of Saint Vincent and Camperdown—
Suspension of Cash Payments—Mutiny of the Fleet—Irish Rebellion—
Battle of the Nile—The Union of Ireland—The Armed Neutrality—Bat-
tle of Copenhagen—Peace of Amiens.....373

CHAPTER XXXV.

FROM THE TREATY OF AMIENS TO THE DEATH OF GEORGE III.,
A. D. 1802—1820.

Renewal of the War—Victory of Trafalgar—Death of Pitt and Fox—Unsuccessful foreign Expeditions—Bombardment of Copenhagen—Peninsular War—Convention of Cintra—Battle of Corunna—Walcheren Expedition—Sir Francis Burdett—The Regency—Liverpool Ministry—Orders in Council—War with the United States—Waterloo—Bombardment of Algiers—Popular Disturbances.....Page 383

CHAPTER XXXVI.

GEORGE IV., A. D. 1820—1830.

The Cato Street Conspiracy—The Queen's Trial—King's Visit to Ireland, Hanover, and Scotland—Negro Insurrection in the West Indies—Tithe War in Ireland—Burmese and Ashantee Wars—Panic of 1825—Canning Ministry—Battle of Navarino—Repeal of the Test Act—Roman-catholic Relief Bill395

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WILLIAM IV., A. D. 1830—1837.

The Reform Bill—Parliamentary Struggle—Political Unions—Disturbances in the Country—Abolition of Slavery—New Poor Law—State of Ireland—Coercion Bills—Municipal Reform Bill—Dissolution of the Orange Lodges400

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

VICTORIA TO THE END OF THE RUSSIAN WAR, A. D. 1837—1856.

Rebellion in Canada—The Chartists—Riots in Wales and Kent—Chinese War—Peel Ministry—Anti-Corn-Law League—Repeal Movement in Ireland—The Scottish Disruption—Repeal of the Corn Laws—Improved Social Legislation—Railway Mania—The Irish Famine—The Electric Telegraph—French Revolution—Chartist Discontent—Irish Rebellion—Repeal of the Navigation Laws—The Cholera—Hungarian Refugees—Death of Sir R. Peel—Popish Usurpation—Great Exhibition—Wreck of the Birkenhead—Burmese and Kaffir Wars—Russian War405

CHAPTER XXXIX.

FROM THE RUSSIAN WAR TO THE ABYSSINIAN WAR, A. D. 1856—1868.

American Differences—The Trent Affair—Fate of Sir John Franklin—Discoveries of M'Clintock—Persian War—Chinese Wars—Indian Mutiny—Commercial Crisis—Domestic Events—Volunteer Movement—Financial Reforms—A Year of Calamity—The Second Exhibition—Cotton Famine—Marriage of the Prince of Wales—Alabama Difficulty—Cattle Plague—Sheffield Catastrophe—Belfast Riots—Gunpowder Explosion—Hostilities in Japan—Ionian Islands Surrendered—Fenian Plot—Clerkenwell Explosion—Prince of Wales in Ireland.....421

CHAPTER XL.

PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.....443

CHAPTER XLI.

THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.....471

CONTEMPORARY SOVEREIGNS

OF

ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, AND FRANCE.

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
800	Egbert.....	Achaius	Charlemagne
814	Louis I.
819	Congale III.....
824	Dougal
831	Alpin
834	Kenneth II.....
836	Ethelwolf
843	Charles le Chauve
854	Donald V.....
857	Ethelbald
858	Constantine II.....
860	Ethelbert.....
866	Ethelred I.....
872	Alfred the Great.....
874	Ethus
876	Gregory
877	Louis II.
879	Louis III.
879	Carloman
884	Charles le Gros
888	Hugh
892	Donald VI.....
898	Charles le Simple
900	Edward the Elder.....
901	Constantine III.....
922	Robert
923	Ralph
925	Athelstan.....
936	Louis IV.
938	Malcolm I.....
941	Edmund.....
946	Edred
954	Lothaire
955	Edwy
958	Indulphus
959	Edgar.....
968	Duffus
972	Cullenus
978	Kenneth III.....
975	Edward the Martyr.....
978	Ethelred II.....
986	Louis V.
987	Hugh Capet
994	Constantine IV.....
997	Grimus.....	Robert
1004	Malcolm II.....
1016	Edmund Ironside

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1017	Canute
1031	Henry I.
1034	DuncanJ.....
1036	Harold.....
1039	Hardicanute.....
1040	Macbeth
1041	Edward the Confessor...
1057	Malcolm III.....
1060	Philip I.
1066	Harold II.....
1066	William I.....
1067	William II.....
1093	Donald VI.....
1094	Duncan II.....
1096	Edgar
1100	Henry I.....
1107	Alexander I.....
1108	Louis VI.
1124	David I.....
1135	Stephen
1137	Louis VII.
1153	Malcolm IV.....
1154	Henry II.....
1165	William I.....
1180	Philip II.
1189	Richard I.....
1199	John.....
1214	Alexander II.....
1216	Henry III.....
1223	Louis VIII.
1226	St Louis IX.
1245	Alexander III.....
1270	Philip III.
1272	Edward I.....
1285	Philip IV.
1286	Margaret.....
1288	John Balliol.....
1296	Interregnum.....
1306	Robert I.....
1307	Edward II.....
1314	Louis X. <i>King of Navarre</i>
1316	John I.
1316	Philip V.
1322	Charles IV.
1327	Edward III.
1328	Philip VI.
1329	David II.....
1350	John II.
1364	Charles V.
1371	Robert II.....
1377	Richard II.....
1380	Charles VI.
1380	Robert III.....
1389	Henry IV.....
1406	James I.....
1413	Henry V.....
1422	Henry VI.....	Charles VII.
1437	James II.....
1460	James III.....
1461	Edward IV.....	Louis XI.
1483	Edward V.....	Charles VIII.
1483	Richard III.....
1485	Henry VII.....
1488	James IV.....
1498	Louis XII.

A. D.	ENGLAND.	SCOTLAND.	FRANCE.
1509	Henry VIII.....
1513	James V.....
1515	Francis I.
1542	Mary.....
1547	Edward VI.....	Henry II.
1553	Mary.....
1558	Elizabeth.....
1559	Francis II.
1560	Charles IX.
1567	James VI.....
1574	Henry III.
1589	Henry IV.
1603	James I. <i>Great Britain</i>	<i>Ascended the throne of</i>
1610	<i>England March 1603.</i>	Louis XIII.
1625	Charles I.....
1643	Louis XIV.
1660	Charles II.....
1685	James II.....
1689	Mary and William III.
1694	William III.....
1702	Anne.....
1714	George I.....
1715	Louis XV.
1727	George II.....
1760	George III.....
1774	Louis XVI.
1792	Republic
1804	Napoleon Emperor
1811	Regency.....
1814	Louis XVIII.
1820	George IV.....
1824	Charles X.
1830	William IV.....	Louis Philippe
1837	Victoria.....
1848	Republic
1851	Napoleon III.

HISTORY

OF

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

THE FABULOUS HISTORIANS.

1. THE history of a nation, to be really instructive, should contain nothing but the truth. We are naturally inclined to believe what we read in books without questioning its accuracy; and historians, taking advantage of this disposition, have sought to gratify their own prejudices and the national vanity by misrepresenting facts, or by exaggerating the antiquity and warlike achievements of their ancestors. Thus succeeding writers, adopting without examination the tales recorded by their predecessors, and even adding to them, have in many cases either entirely obscured the truth, or supplied its place by fable and falsehood. As very little is known of the early inhabitants of this island for nearly a thousand years after the birth of Christ, most readers, and the young especially, take little interest in a narrative which does not enlist their sympathies by the heroic exploits of great men and the triumphs or reverses of the nation. Encouraged by this feeling, our earlier historians have sought to relieve the dryness of a general account by the invention of particulars that have little or no foundation in fact; and although this volume will contain nothing but what the author has good grounds for believing to be true, it may afford the learner some amusement as well as instruction, to be shown the kind

of fables which were once current about the early history of England, Scotland, and Ireland. And it must be remembered that a belief in these fables was not confined to the ignorant only, but was entertained by every class of educated men.

2. ENGLAND.—A monk, named Geoffrey of Monmouth, about the middle of the twelfth century wrote a Latin history of Britain, in which he gives a list of seventy kings who flourished before the landing of Julius Cæsar,—the earliest fact concerning Britain which we know on good authority. Our readers who are familiar with the history of Greece will remember that the siege of Troy took place in the early infancy of the Greek nation, and on the lowest computation ten centuries before the birth of Christ. This siege they would hardly expect to find connected with the history of England; and yet, according to Geoffrey of Monmouth, it had nearly as much to do with this country as the battle of Bannockburn or of Waterloo. He tells us, that young Ascanius, who fled with his father Æneas from Troy, had a son named Brute, from whom this island was called Brutain or Britain. After having wandered over the world with an army of Trojans, it seems that he came to an island beyond Gaul, inhabited by giants, where Brute and his army performed great feats of valour; and one of his followers had the credit of slaying a hundred men with his own hand in one battle. They killed all the giants in the island, and built London, which they called Troy Novant, or New Troy, after their native city. The chroniclers tell us that Brute had three sons, called Locrinus, Albanactus, and Kamber. To the first he left the kingdom of England, to the second that of Scotland, and to the third that of Wales.

In Geoffrey's narrative, which has had many copyists, we find a long succession of kings from Brute downwards; and to show the preposterously fictitious nature of the whole account, it may be sufficient to state that he gives a minute history of King Lear as the contemporary of Solomon, king of Israel. Of this King Lear a pleasant and instructive story is told. It is said, that having three daughters, he desired in his old age to divide his kingdom among them, but first wished to know in what degree each loved him, that he might reward them accordingly. One of them said, "She loved him above all creatures;" another said, "She loved him above her own soul;" but the third would only say, "My love towards you is as my duty bids;—what should a father seek—what can a

child promise more? they who pretend beyond this flatter.” The foolish old man, enraged at this candid speech, divided his kingdom between the two elder daughters, and the third, whose name was Cordelia, he left destitute. But Cordelia’s virtues, as the story goes, attracted the admiration and love of Aganippus, a distant and powerful monarch, who made her his queen. In the meantime, King Lear, with a party of threescore knights, bethought him that he would live in happiness and comfort at the court of his eldest daughter. But she, complaining that his followers were disorderly, treated him and them with affronts and incivilities, and gradually got them reduced to the number of thirty. He then went with his diminished retinue to his second daughter; but she followed the example of her sister, and reduced his attendants to five. The old man next sought to return to his eldest child, but she refused to admit him if he had more than one attendant. And now the heart-broken monarch began to think of the words of his daughter Cordelia, and sought a refuge at her husband’s court. She was only too glad to receive and honour her poor old father; and, in the words of the great poet Milton, who gives the story a place in his history of England, “not enduring either that her own or any other eye should see him in such forlorn condition as his messenger declared, discreetly appoints one of her most trusty servants first to convey him privately towards some good sea-town, then to array him, bathe him, cherish him, and furnish him with such attendants and state as beseemed his dignity; that then, as from his first landing, he might send word of his arrival to her husband Aganippus; which done, with all mature and requisite contrivance, Cordelia, with the king her husband, and all the barony of his realm, who then first had news of his passing the sea, go out to meet him; and after all honourable and joyful entertainment, Aganippus, as to his wife’s father and his royal guest, surrenders him during his abode there the power and disposal of his whole dominion.” Aganippus afterwards sent an army which conquered the kingdom from the two ungrateful daughters, and restored it to their aged father.—Such is the story of the old chroniclers; which, though not true, at all events contains a good moral. It formed the groundwork of the most affecting of all Shakspeare’s tragedies.

3. SCOTLAND.—The Scottish historians were resolved not to be behind their neighbours in the antiquity which they

claimed for their nation. Their story was, that a certain prince of Greece—some of them say a grandson of Nimrod named Gathelus—having quarrelled with his father, went over to Egypt, where he married Scots, the daughter of that Pharaoh who was drowned in the Red Sea. This couple, during their wandering life, founded a kingdom, which, after the husband, was called Partugathel or Portugal, and thence they proceeded to this island, where they founded another kingdom, which, after the lady, was termed Scotia or Scotland. All these events took place nearly as long before the Christian era as we are now living after it; and while little more is truly known about Scotland a thousand years back than the names of a few chiefs or kings, the annalists profess to give us a minute account of what happened in the country more than three thousand years ago. These fables, from their constant repetition, were partly believed even by clever men, who thought they added to the dignity of their country; and the great scholar Buchanan credited so much of them, that in his history he has given the lives of more than forty kings who never existed. Nay, so far was the national feeling on this subject carried, that there may yet be seen on the walls of Holyrood Palace grave-looking portraits, professing to be the likenesses of these very monarchs.

4. IRELAND.—But the Irish annalists far excelled those of either England or Scotland in the wonderful antiquity which they attributed to their country. They carry their history back before the Flood, and tell us that the island was first colonized by Bamba, a daughter of Cain. There are various accounts of the manner in which the island was re-peopled after the Deluge, and its antediluvian records preserved. Some relate a story of persons drowned in the Flood and brought to life again; but others, professing to be less credulous, say that a person of the name of Bith was preserved by being hidden in the ark. Since the country appears so early in history, we are of course not surprised to find recorded the lives of ninety-one kings who ruled over Ireland in uninterrupted succession before the Christian era. There are undoubtedly many remarkable and ancient remains in the country, such as the celebrated round towers, raised to a great height, and a number of large stones with curious and rude sculpture on them; and antiquaries of the present day have not hesitated to assert that these monuments are thousands of years old, and that Ireland was highly civilized when

all the rest of the earth, except Egypt and Judea, was sunk in utter barbarism.

So much for the fables to which implicit belief was given less than two centuries ago, and which are not yet wholly discredited. We shall now proceed to tell briefly what is really known of the British Islands in ancient times.*

CHAPTER I.

THE BRITONS AND THE ROMANS.

Imperfection of early Accounts of Great Britain—Smallness of the Population—Their Divisions—Surface of the Country—Druidical Circles—Arms and Fortifications—Native Money—Religion—Julius Cæsar—Cassivellaunus—Caractacus—Boadicea—Julius Agricola—Galgacus—The Roman Walls—British Independence, Carausius—Ambrosius and Vortigern—Roman Relics in Britain—Progress in Civilisation—Introduction of Christianity.

1. THE earliest accounts that we have of the two islands of Britain and Ireland are from the writings of the Romans; but even their statements cannot be entirely depended upon. The Roman government did not, like ours, make inquiries about the habits and customs of barbarous nations. We cannot find in the Roman works that have descended to our day any particulars of the language of the countries they overran; nor have we any reason to believe that the Roman governors were at the trouble of learning the language of the people over whom they ruled. It is always a difficult thing to acquire a knowledge of the character and manners of a people who are strangers to us in every respect; and the carelessness of the Roman writers about matters in which modern travellers would take a lively interest, makes us doubt the accuracy even of what they do tell. Thus, it is not easy to form a conception of the state in which the Romans found the island of Britain, except from our knowledge of the condition of uncivilized nations at the present day, and the remains of antiquity that have come down to us.

* The Introductory Chapter being intended rather to illustrate our early fabulous history than to convey any practical information, it is not followed by Exercises.

2. In England and Scotland, where there are now about twenty millions of inhabitants, it is probable that at the time of Cæsar's landing there were not half a million, or a fifth part of the present population of London. It is known that at the Norman conquest, more than a thousand years afterwards, the population of England was not much above a million. All barbarous countries are thinly peopled; and New Zealand, which is of the same size as Great Britain, is supposed not to have so many as 200,000 inhabitants. It would be a great mistake to imagine that Britain, at this early period, was inhabited by a united people, who had one system of government and laws, and a common notion of patriotism and of resistance to the invaders; neither should it be thought that there was any national disgrace in a scanty barbarous population being overpowered by the highly disciplined legions of the Romans. Indeed, such accounts as the Romans give of their combats with the natives would be called foolish boasting at the present day, if employed by any of our military commanders in reference to uncivilized people. Wherever the Romans went they were opposed courageously, but only by the inhabitants of the place. Those at a distance could scarcely know of their coming. Indeed, it is probable, that when the southern part of the island was conquered by the Romans, the tribes north of the Tweed were ignorant of their existence. No one should imagine that the surface of the country at that time had any resemblance to its present appearance. What are now corn-fields and gardens were then pathless morasses, and people incurred the risk of drowning where the plough now passes through dry soil. Where the land was not covered with moisture, it was overgrown with heath and furze, or with great forests. There could scarcely be said to be any cultivation, and the natives fed on wild animals and the precarious produce of partly cultivated lands. There were no made roads, or bridges over the wide rivers; and we have no reason to presume that there was a single building of stones or bricks cemented with lime in any part of the island. If such had existed, there would probably have been some remnants of them at the present day.

3. Indeed, we know more about the original inhabitants of the country from the remains of their works, than from anything that books can tell. These show them to have possessed considerable mechanical skill. Their great circles of stone, commonly called druidical circles, still strike the

beholder with astonishment, even in this age of wonders. Some of the stones at Stonehenge rise more than twenty-one feet above the surface of the earth, and as they require to have nearly the same depth below it, to keep them steady, those who erected them must have been able to move solid stones about forty feet long, and weighing many hundreds of tons. At Constantine, in Cornwall, one stone, thirty-three feet long and eighteen broad, had been lifted up by them, and balanced on two points of rock, where it may still be seen. They had the art of balancing stones of hundreds of tons weight so nicely on a point, that a child may move them to and fro; and some of these rocking-stones, as they are commonly called, still exist vibrating in the wind upon desolate moors. These rude but surprising works are to be found in every part of the British Isles. While the largest druidical circle is in Wiltshire, in the south of England, the next in eminence is the circle of Stennes, in the Orkney Islands, seven hundred miles distant from it. They raised barriers or cairns, that is, artificial hills of stone or earth, either as commemorations of great events, or as the tombs of the departed. They constructed curious chambers like cellars underground, the ceiling of which consisted of large stones as long as the whole width of the chamber. They built circular forts on the tops of conical hills, sometimes of stone, sometimes of earth. By some of these a large area on the summit of the hill is encircled with three or four great ramparts, which give us a high idea of the skill and perseverance of those by whom they were raised. Among the smaller remains of the handiwork of the ancient Britons are spear and arrow heads made of flint. These are of the most exquisite shapes, and it would be impossible to cut them neater or sharper in metal than these primitive people cut them from the hard flint. When the ploughman of the present day turns up these tiny and beautifully shaped arrow heads, he is loath to believe them to be the work of human hands, and looks on them with dread, as the deadly weapons of the elves or fairies. The natives of Britain were not quite ignorant of the use of metals before the arrival of the Romans. The Phœnician merchants, who had discovered the value of the tin with which part of England abounded, had probably shown the natives how to use that metal; and bracelets and armlets, with ornaments for the head and neck, have been found of gold and silver, the most remarkable of them having been dug up in Ireland.

It is now generally believed that these gold ornaments were priestly decorations, which imparted dignity to the ceremonies of the Druids.

The subject of native British money is still involved in considerable obscurity. Julius Cæsar positively states that the ancient Britons had no coined money; but in its stead made use of metal rings of a certain weight. These have been found in iron, bronze, gold, and silver, and on examination prove, it is said, to be exact multiples of a standard unit (twelve grains troy).

4. The religion of the Britons was that variety of pagan superstition known by the name of Druidism. The Druids were both priests and lawgivers, and from their oral instructions the British youth derived what knowledge they possessed. According to the accounts we have received of them, they are said to have been divided into three classes—Druids proper, Vates or soothsayers, and Bards. They taught the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and believed in one God, although in later times the objects of their adoration were numerous, including the serpent and the heavenly bodies. Traces of their superstitions still remain in the bonfires of May-day and Midsummer-eve, and in the ceremonies of All-Hallowmas. The oak was a special object of veneration among the Druids: they took up their abode beneath its spreading branches, and their sacred rites were never performed without some of its leaves. The mistletoe, when found growing upon it, was cut by the arch-druid with a golden knife, and the day of its gathering was kept as a solemn religious festival. Besides their natural temples in the oak-groves, the large stone circles already mentioned are believed to have furnished them with a sort of consecrated temples. Within these remarkable structures it is supposed that the Druids annually assembled, to celebrate their orgies, and offer up human sacrifices upon the altars. But it would appear that the ordinary mode of immolation often proved too tedious, for we are informed by Cæsar that on certain occasions gigantic images of wickerwork were filled with men, women, and children, and being set on fire, the miserable victims were consumed in the flames. The whole subject of the rites and religion of Druidism is, however, involved in the deepest mystery.

5. JULIUS CÆSAR.—In the year 55 B. C., Caius Julius Cæsar, whose conquests in Gaul had brought him within

sight of our coasts, resolved to cross over into Britain; for, in order to be master of Gaul, it was necessary to intimidate the warlike inhabitants of that island, who maintained a continual communication with their brethren on the continent. A fleet of eighty transports was accordingly prepared, and a Roman army, about 12,000 in number, after a vigorous opposition, landed on the coast of Kent. But this expedition nearly proved fatal to the invaders: on the fourth night after the disembarkation a violent storm arose, which almost entirely destroyed their fleet, and cut off all hope of immediate return to Gaul. The natives, gaining confidence by this disaster, prepared to drive the strangers into the sea; but Cæsar easily dispersed the undisciplined barbarians, and having repaired a portion of his damaged vessels, returned to the continent after an absence of seventeen days.

This return was so like a flight, that Cæsar felt the necessity of attempting another expedition in the following year. B.C. } His arrangements this time were on a more extensive
 54 } scale: a fleet of 800 galleys conveyed 32,000 Roman soldiers to the Kentish shore, where they landed without opposition. Marching rapidly into the interior, he found the natives advantageously posted behind a river, whose passage they gallantly disputed. Being compelled to retreat, they next took up a position within a wood, the approaches to which they strongly barricaded; but the rude fortifications of the Britons proved a feeble obstacle to the Romans, who soon forced an entrance, and drove out the defenders. On the following morning, Cæsar was informed that a tempest had again destroyed part of his fleet, and he lost ten days in repairing his vessels and drawing them up high on shore beyond reach of the waves. He then returned to continue his pursuit of the Britons, who had assembled in greater numbers than before, and had chosen for their commander a powerful and warlike chief, whose territories lay along the left bank of the Thames. He is called Cassivellaunus by the Romans, who always latinized both the names of persons and of places, so that it is difficult to discover what those names really were. "The Britons," says Cæsar, "fight in small bands on horseback or in chariots. When they commence the battle, they dart across the plain, startling the enemy by the swiftness of their course and the noise of their wheels: They are so skilful in managing them, that they drive their horses down the rapid slopes of the hills, run along the pole, and stand upon

the yoke, all the while discharging missile weapons; and if the enemy is near, they throw themselves back into their chariots, that they may have a firm footing for the strife, or leap to the ground and combat hand to hand."

This is probably a poetical description; for it is difficult to believe that on the rough ground without roads, and in rude chariots, the barbarians could show so much agility. That they were brave is evident, but their courage could not long resist the discipline and resources of the Romans, whose armies, by their own account, were so large as to outnumber any force which a thinly peopled country could bring against them. Cassivellaunus, after a variety of fortunes, left to his own resources, and unable to repair the losses sustained in successive defeats, could no longer make head against the legions. He was therefore compelled to sue for peace, which was willingly granted on condition of his paying tribute. Cæsar had no sooner received the submission of Cassivellaunus than he returned to Gaul; and the only result of his two expeditions was a number of barren victories which struck terror into the inhabitants. The Romans did not again visit the island till the reign of Claudius, about a hundred years afterwards, though preparations for invasion had been made both by Augustus and Caligula.

6. Barbarian tribes, in their quarrels with one another, are always naturally anxious to have the assistance of some powerful civilized people, forgetting that when the strangers are once called in, both the contending parties are liable to be subdued by them. It was in this manner that great part of our Indian empire was acquired. Some of the chiefs of Britain appealed to the Romans, who, in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, sent a new expedition to our coasts. The natives followed a ^{A.D.?} plan which had been adopted by Cassivellaunus: the ⁴² stores of provisions were destroyed, the habitations burnt to the ground; all around the enemy the country became a barren, uninhabited desert. But the Roman general Plautius, who drew his supplies from Gaul, advanced fearlessly towards the interior of the island, employing his light-armed German auxiliaries in the pursuit of the British, who at length made a stand on the banks of the Severn. Here they resisted Plautius two days, and then retreated to the marshes on the Thames, where, being favoured by the nature of the ground, they caused great loss to the Romans, and compelled them to retire and wait for reinforcements. Ere-

long these arrived under the emperor himself, who advanced as far as Camalodunum (supposed to be Maldon in Essex), beyond the Thames, where he received the submission of several neighbouring tribes, and then returned to Rome to enjoy the honours of a triumph.

It cost the Romans still many a hard contest before they were able to establish themselves in the island. Vespasian, one of Claudius's lieutenants, had to fight more than thirty battles before reducing the Belgæ and the inhabitants of the Isle of Wight. Plautius, on the north of the Thames, could only subdue the warlike tribes around him by sowing division among them at a vast expense of treasure. He was replaced five years later by Ostorius Scapula, who erected a line of forts on the Severn and the Nene, to protect the conquered territory. He also disarmed all the suspected Britons within the line; an act of caution which led to the formation of a vast confederacy to sweep the invaders from the island. At the head of this league was the powerful Caractacus, who was defeated after a hard contest, while his wife and daughter were made prisoners; his brothers surrendered at discretion; and not long after, he himself was betrayed by his stepmother, the queen of the Brigantes, with whom he had sought an asylum, and given up to Ostorius, by whom he was led captive to Rome. Among the luxurious Italians, the haughty bearing and unsubdued spirit of the barbarous chief produced a strong effect, and he was viewed with interest and wonder. The captive princes were usually put to death; but as an act of popular clemency, and of homage to his intrepidity, the emperor spared his life.

The next military movement of the Romans was an attack on the island of Anglesea, the main place of resort of the Druid priests. In the meantime, Boadicea, the queen of the tribe of the Iceni, and her daughters, having suffered outrage and barbarous cruelty from some licentious Roman soldiers, many of the tribes, roused to a common thirst of vengeance by her wrongs, flocked round her. She appeared among the assembled multitude exciting them to do battle. But the Romans, under their leader Suetonius, were victorious over the combined host of barbarians, whom they cruelly slaughtered. The wretched Boadicea, disappointed alike of revenge and of her country's release, died by her own hand.

7. AGRICOLA.—In the year 78 after the birth of Christ that great general and statesman Julius Agricola took the

command in Britain, and his deeds both of peace and war have had the good fortune to be recorded by his son-in-law Tacitus, the celebrated Roman historian. It was his policy to civilize the people, so that they might be less ferocious as enemies and more useful as subjects. In the year 81 he is generally believed to have entered Scotland, consolidating the empire of the Romans as he proceeded; and three years later, having penetrated beyond the Frith of Forth, he fought the celebrated battle of the Grampians, and conquered a Caledonian chief, whom the Romans called by the name of Galgacus. Tacitus gives a long and very eloquent speech, which he tells us that warrior delivered to his troops; but it is pretty certain, that besides the difficulty of finding out what a hostile general has said to his army, Tacitus would not have understood a word that Galgacus said if he had heard him quietly at a public meeting. No one has been able to prove where this battle took place: according to some it was in Fifeshire, according to others at Ardoch near Dunblane; while some antiquarians have maintained that the spot was as far north as Aberdeenshire or Inverness-shire. The fleet of Agricola sailed round the northern coast of Scotland, and thus discovered to the Romans that Britain was an island. Remains, which may still be seen, show how active and enterprising the Romans had been during the short time that they occupied Scotland. Their camps and forts were square, the ramparts consisting of high mounds of earth tapering to a narrow ridge at the top. The remains of these are scattered through all Scotland,—some of them north of the Grampian Hills in the shires of Aberdeen and Inverness. At Ardoch, in Perthshire, there stands a fort, consisting of several high ramparts one within the other, all distinct and sharp in their outline to this day. There is a good Roman bath at Burghhead on the Moray Frith, and their roads, known from their being paved with large stones, are found in many places.

8. The conquests of Agricola in the north were soon lost. A rampart or wall was built from the Solway Frith to the east coast of England, called Adrian's Wall, which marked the boundary of the empire. About the year 138, Lollius Urbicus, the governor of Britain, advanced the boundary northwards, and made a line of square forts and a rampart across that narrow portion of the island between the Friths of Forth and Clyde, near where they are now joined by the Union Canal. This rampart was afterwards called Grime's

or Graham's Dyke by the common people, who believed it to have been erected by an ancient Scottish chief of that name; but a number of coins, altars, and images found in the earth from time to time showed that it was Roman. Of the doings of the Romans in Britain, after Agricola, we have but very scanty accounts. The Emperor Severus, in his old age, resolved to attack the Caledonians in their mountains: so great, however, were the difficulties he encountered immediately after crossing Adrian's Wall, that 50,000 men are said to have perished from the incessant labour of cutting and clearing the roads. After advancing as far as the Moray Frith, he returned to the frontiers of the civilized provinces, and built a stone wall with forts nearly in a line with that raised by Adrian. Severus had not completed this barrier before the Caledonians again resumed the offensive. He thereupon commenced a hasty march northwards, determined to extirpate them, but was unable to proceed farther than York, where he A.D. }
211. } died. Caracalla, his son and successor, being anxious to return to Rome, was induced to conclude a hasty peace with them, and he formally ceded all the district to the north of the Solway and Tyne.

9. For nearly seventy years there is little mention of Britain, and its first reappearance is as an independent state. In consequence of the ravages of the Scandinavian pirates, A.D. }
288. } the joint Emperors Diocletian and Maximian appointed Carausius, a bold and skilful naval officer, to the command of a strong fleet in the English Channel. With this force he defeated the freebooters, enriching himself and his mariners with the plunder. Anticipating the intentions of the emperors to put him to death, he sailed with his fleet to Britain, where he received the imperial diadem from the hands of the Roman troops. He maintained his power against all attempts of the emperors to reduce it, and extorted from them the government of Britain and the adjacent coast of Gaul, with the title of emperor. Carausius fell by the dagger of Allectus, a Briton, who succeeded to the island-empire, and A.D. }
297. } perished three years after in battle against the Emperor Constantius Chlorus, under whom Britain again owned the imperial sway of Rome.

The Roman power now began to decay, and after the seat of empire was removed to Constantinople, the remote provinces were left more to their own resources. In the reign of Valentinian I., the Picts and Scots are said to have pillaged

A.D. } the city of London, carrying off its inhabitants as slaves.
367. } Theodosius, father of the emperor of that name, repelled these invaders, and restored the wall of Severus; but the northern districts were never after allowed to enjoy any rest. In 382, Maximus, supposed to be of British descent, assumed the imperial purple. Not content with his insular dominions, he aimed at the empire of the West, and established the seat of his brief government at Treves. The number of Britons who followed his fortunes was so great that the island was left almost defenceless, and the Scots and Picts renewed their depredations. Britain was now abandoned to its own resources, and the troops successively raised a number of puppets to the supreme authority. Honorius, in the year 420, formally released the Britons from their allegiance; they afterwards refused to acknowledge the authority of the Roman provincial and municipal governors, and in their stead appointed the ancient chiefs of the native tribes. This confederation of petty rulers was controlled by an elective monarch, probably one of their own number, with the title of *Pendragon*. But, far from uniting the people and strengthening them against foreign aggression, this new institution became a source of division and weakness. The southern part of the island was distracted by two great factions: Aurelius Ambrosius, a descendant of one of the emperors, being at the head of the Roman party, and Vortigern of the British. Religious controversy and civil war soon reduced the country to a state of anarchy; and it is not improbable that Vortigern had in view the destruction of his rival when he applied for the aid of foreign arms to enable him to repel the incursions of the Picts and Scots.

10. The Romans left behind them in Britain many magnificent relics of their taste and industry. To those accustomed to the civilisation and to the warm sun of Italy, it must have been felt as a calamity to be compelled to live not only in a cold, foggy, uncultivated country, but among a barbarous people. However, like wise men, they seem to have devoted their talents and industry to make the best of their situation. They protected themselves with a number of fortified towns. *Castrum* was the term applied to such a fortification, and nearly all the places in England which end in *cester* or *chester* have their names from Roman fortresses; as, for example, Manchester, Porchester, and Cirencester. They made a means of passage for themselves throughout the island by paved

roads. Their generals and governors of provinces built handsome villas in the sunniest spots they could discover; and fragments of marble sculpture or of brilliantly coloured pavements—the remains of some powerful Roman's mansion—have often been turned up by the plough, or in railway excavations. The Romans enjoyed the luxury of bathing, and as they soon discovered the valuable properties of the warm springs of Bath, it appears to have been used by them as a fashionable watering-place. The remains of two temples, and of a number of statues, have here been dug up, in laying the foundations of new streets and squares for the accommodation of those who frequent the place for the same purpose as the Romans did seventeen hundred years ago.

11. Under the Romans, the southern Britons made rapid advances in civilisation. Their chief export was corn, and the island became a great storehouse to the northern part of the empire. Its cattle, horses, and dogs were held in high esteem on the continent, while cheese, lime, marl, and chalk were also largely exported. We learn from Tacitus, that besides tin and lead, both iron and the precious metals were obtained in Britain. Its pearl-fishery, which was early celebrated, is said to have been one of the motives of Cæsar's invasion, and a shield, ornamented with British pearls, was suspended by the great conqueror in the Temple of Venus at Rome. Its oysters were highly prized by the Roman epicures, and from the time of Juvenal to the present day, the same neighbourhood has continued to produce those of the best quality.

It is pretty clearly ascertained that a gold coinage was in use not long after Cæsar's invasion, of which numerous specimens have been found, displaying the figures of horses, oxen, pigs, and sheep, while a few bear on the obverse the head of some apparently royal personage. Carausius and Allectus, during their brief sovereignty, issued a metallic currency, of which several specimens are still to be found in the national museum or in the cabinets of the curious.

But we must ever consider the greatest gift which the early Britons received from their Roman conquerors to be the truths of Christianity. The Romans hated the Druids, and gradually exterminated them. The soldiers of Cæsar and Agricola would of course continue to follow their own system of polytheism; and indeed they erected many heathen altars, which may still be seen in the museums, where they were deposited as they were from time to time dug up. But they

had not a long intercourse with the Britons before they were themselves made Christians. The inhabitants suffered along with the rest of the Roman empire under the persecutions of Diocletian, four hundred years after the birth of Christ; but as the other provinces of the empire imbibed Christianity, so did Britain. The particulars, however, of the first conversion of the people are not known. Some writers have maintained that Saint Paul preached to the Britons; and one of our best artists painted a picture of the apostle under an oak, proclaiming the truths of the gospel to the wild inhabitants of the island and their Druid priests. All that we can say with truth is, that Christianity made great progress among them, and that they were not behind the rest of the Roman empire in the acknowledgment of the true faith.

EXERCISES.

1. Where do we find the earliest accounts of Britain and Ireland? State the reasons why these accounts are imperfect.

2. State the reasons for supposing that there was but a small population in Britain when the Romans landed. Were the people a united nation under one government as they are at present? Was it a very glorious thing for the Romans to gain victories over such a people? What was the state of the surface of the country? Mention ordinary things existing all over the island at the present day which were then unknown.

3. How do we derive the best knowledge of the condition of the early inhabitants? Describe some of their works. Where are the principal Druidical circles? Describe their fortifications. Describe the existing specimens of their arms. How far were the ancient Britons acquainted with the use of metals? What remains of metallic productions have been found? State what is known regarding their money.

4. What was the religion of the ancient Britons called? How were the Druids divided into classes? What did they teach? In what form do traces of their superstitions remain? What connexion are they supposed to have had with the stone circles?

5. When did Cæsar first land in Britain? Describe the event. Describe Cæsar's second invasion. What districts did he penetrate into? What name did the Romans give the leader who resisted him? What was the practice of the Romans in giving names to the people of barbarous countries? What does Cæsar say of the British method of fighting? How long was it after Cæsar's time before the Romans again invaded Britain?

6. How is it that barbarous tribes give opportunities for ambitious nations to conquer them? Who was the next Roman general who invaded Britain? How did the Britons resist him? How far did the reinforcements under the emperor advance? What Roman commander had to fight more than thirty battles? Where did Ostorius Scapula erect forts? Describe the main events in the history of Caractacus. Describe those in the history of Boadicea.

7. When did Julius Agricola take the command in Britain? How is it that we are better informed of his proceedings than of those of other Roman governors in Britain? What celebrated battle did he fight in Scotland? With whom was it fought? What various places is it said to have been fought in? What remains exist of the progress of the Roman arms in Scotland? State where there is a good specimen of a Roman camp.

8. Were the conquests of Agricola long retained? Where was the boundary of the empire subsequently fixed? Where did Lollius Urbicus fix it? What was his rampart called? Describe the proceedings of the Emperor Severus. Who ceded the districts north of the Solway and Tyne?

9. In what state do we next find Britain mentioned by the Romans? Under what circumstances did Carausius come to the island? What did he achieve? How did the Roman power again decay? From what enemies did the southern Britons suffer? Who was Maximus, and what was his history? When were the Britons formally released from obedience, and by whom? What was their history immediately after that event?

10. What indications of their presence did the Romans leave in Britain? How did they accommodate themselves to the country? How are the names of their fortified places still remembered? What remains show the manner in which they lived?

11. What effect had the presence of the Romans on the natives? What was the chief produce of the country under them? What were its exports? What luxury did the Romans derive from the British coast? What do we know of the coinage under the Romans? What was the greatest gift which the Romans conferred on this island? What do we know of the propagation of Christianity among the Britons?

CHAPTER II.

ENGLAND FROM THE SAXON INVASION TO THE END OF THE HEPTARCHY, 449—825.

Origin of the Saxon Tribes—Their Character and Habits—First Appearance in Britain—Saxon Heptarchy—The Bretwalda—Saxon Religion and Mythology—Thor—Mission of Augustine—Rapid Progress of Christianity among the Saxons—Internal Wars—End of the Heptarchy.

1. THE countries on the shores of the Baltic and the North Sea, extending southwards to the Rhine, were inhabited by a fierce and savage people, known in history as the Saxons, though, strictly speaking, consisting of several tribes, the chief of which were the Jutes, the Angles, and the Saxons proper. Piracy was their habitual occupation; and even at those times when the storms, so frequent in the German Ocean, compelled the Roman galleys to seek a shelter in their own harbours, these hardy corsairs would put to sea in their frail barks, and fall suddenly upon some unprotected portion of the shores of Gaul or Britain. Their religion, the sanguinary creed of Odin, fanned their martial spirit; for a glorious death in battle was believed by them to ensure their admission to Valhalla, the abode of the blessed. With every returning spring they renewed their adventurous career, under

the guidance of some renowned leader. Poetry and music celebrated their heroic exploits; and in the dreary nights of winter, when the season interrupted their predatory excursions, the chief himself would celebrate in rude strains the valiant deeds of his devoted followers. Their weapons were the dagger, spear, battle-axe, and sword; and their more powerful champions frequently wielded a ponderous mace, bound and spiked with iron, against which the strongest defensive armour afforded no protection.

From these wild warriors, described as exulting in battle, and shouting with laughter in the midst of bloodshed, Vortigern, the British king, sought assistance against the Picts. The two leaders from whom he chiefly received aid have come down to our own days with the names of Hengist and Horsa, but very little is known with truth as to their actual history. It is said that their promised reward was the small island of Thanet, at that time separated from the adjacent mainland by a strait nearly a mile in breadth. With the help of his new allies, Vortigern drove the invaders from the kingdom, and congratulated himself that by the cession of a paltry corner of his territories he had secured the co-operation of such powerful and warlike neighbours.

But this delusion soon vanished. The strangers, having obtained a footing in the country, and being joined by reinforcements of their brethren, soon manifested a determination to become its masters. The distraction caused by an irruption of the Caledonians seemed to favour their design, and after several battles with the Britons, they succeeded in speedily establishing their authority over a considerable portion of the country. For a century after their first landing, the history of South Britain is a confused account of their inroads and warlike progress, not distinct enough to be interesting. Ella A.D. } seized on Sussex, Cerda on Wessex, and Ida, landing
519. } at Flamborough, established himself as master of Durham. Still, however, a protracted resistance was offered, and nearly two centuries elapsed, from the period assigned to the landing of Hengist and Horsa, till the Saxons found their way to Devonshire and Cornwall.

2. It is usual to speak of England under the Saxons as a heptarchy,—that is to say, as consisting of seven kingdoms; and they have been called Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia. There was, however, no such permanent division. Sometimes there were

eight or more states ; at other times fewer than seven ; while three or four occasionally entered into a temporary union. At one time nearly all England and a great part of Scotland were under the influence of one man. Towards the end of the seventh century, when the states had come into some form and compactness, they appear to have stood thus : In the extreme south-east corner of the island three kingdoms were united under the Kentish confederation, containing probably the present counties of Kent, Essex, Middlesex, Surrey, and Sussex. Immediately to the south was the kingdom of the West Saxons, bordered by the Thames on the north and the Severn on the west, and stretching to the Welsh boundaries, comprising probably the present Hampshire, with the Isle of Wight, Dorsetshire, part of Devonshire, Wiltshire, Buckinghamshire, and Berkshire, up to the Chiltern Hills. On the extreme east was East Anglia, stretching to the north and west up to the Wash and the marshes of Lincoln and Cambridge shires, comprehending Norfolk and Suffolk, and portions of Cambridge, Huntingdon, Bedford, and Hertford shires. Mercia occupied nearly all the remaining part of England east of the Severn and south of the Humber. Northumbria, sometimes divided into two kingdoms, called Deira and Bernicia, filled the district from the Humber to the neck of land between the Frith of Forth and the river Clyde in Scotland. Before they were united into one monarchy, they formed three states, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex, which had subverted or absorbed all the others.

Sometimes a part, at other times the whole, of the Saxon states were united under one leader, who was called the *Bretwalda*, and who is supposed to have exercised an authority over the other kings and their dominions like that exercised by the stadtholder of Holland over the United Provinces.

3. Much more is known about the heathen religion of these northern warriors than about the Druidism of the British. The monks who converted them do not describe it, but some ancient poems, called Sagas, have preserved it in Norway, Sweden, and Iceland, just as Homer has preserved the religion of the ancient Greeks. It is singular that the gods of the northern nations bear a great similarity to those of the Greeks and Romans ; but there is something more gigantic and savage about them. The whole system is less elegant than the classic mythology ; but, on the other hand, it does not exhibit such odious vices. Odin or Woden has been compared to Mer-

cury. We still have curious vestiges of him in this country: the fourth day of the week was dedicated to him, and from that circumstance it is still called Wednesday. Many places in England, where he was probably worshipped, such as Woodensburgh and Wonsten in Kent, and Wansford or Wodensford in many parts of the country, were named after this deity. Thor, from whom we have Thursday, has been compared to Mars; but in some respects he was more like Hercules. He wielded the thunder, and that word is derived from his name, which was sometimes spelt Thuner. He possessed a large hammer, which it required ten men to carry on a hurdle: it was always kept red hot, and was, it may be believed, a very formidable instrument. The giants once stole the hammer when Thor was asleep, and carried it off to Giant-land, where it was buried eight miles deep. As it was very necessary that the gods should recover the hammer, they negotiated a marriage between the chief of the giants and Freya, who was their Venus, and after whom Friday is named; and it was part of the bargain that the hammer should be produced at the nuptial ceremony. Thor dressed himself like Freya. The giants wondered when the bride ate an ox and eight salmon; and when the bridegroom approached to salute her, he started back in affright at the fierce eyes that met his gaze. However, the hammer was produced, and Thor seizing it, fell upon the giants with a terrible shout and slaughtered them all. These deities had their valhalla or hall of gladness, where they caroused. We may imagine how much they could swallow from an anecdote told of Thor. The giants challenged him to drink out of their great horn. Thor could only with all his might drain it a few feet down, and he was much mortified. The giants, however, expressed their astonishment, for they afterwards confessed that they had removed the bottom of the horn and put its end in the sea, and Thor had drunk the whole ocean some feet down. It is clear, however, that with all his prowess Thor could not have possessed great discernment, if he did not know that he was drinking salt water instead of mead or wine. The same kind of religion was followed by the Danish pirates and all the other northern warriors.

4. It was during the reign of the Bretwalda Ethelbert that the Christian religion, almost extinct in Britain from the ravages of the pagan Saxons, revived under the protection extended to the missionaries of Gregory the Great by Queen

Bertha, daughter of Caribert, king of Paris. It is related that as Gregory, then a plain monk, was passing one day through the slave market in Rome, he was struck by the appearance of some British youths exposed for sale. On inquiring to what country they belonged, and being told they were Angles, he exclaimed: "They would not be *Angles* (Angli) but *Angels* (Angeli), if they were but Christians." Some years afterwards, he became Pope of Rome, and not forgetting the poor captives, he sent Augustine with forty monks to convert the heathen islanders. The missionaries were well received, Ethelbert was easily converted, and 10,000 A.D. } of his subjects were baptized with him. In 604, Se-
607. } bert, king of Essex, followed the bretwalda's example, and a Christian church was built in London upon the ruins of the temple of Diana. It was dedicated to Saint Paul, and a magnificent cathedral now covers the site of that humble building.

A subsequent bretwalda, Redwall, king of Anglia, before receiving baptism, held a council of his wise men at Godmundham, to learn their sentiments regarding the new doctrines preached by Paulinus. All agreed in the utter inefficiency of the gods whom they worshipped, and Coifi, the pagan high priest, was the first to propose their overthrow. Casting aside his priestly garments, and springing on horseback with a spear in his hand, he rode up to the temple of the chief idol and hurled his lance within the sacred enclosure. The spell was broken, and the people, encouraged by the boldness of the priest, levelled the place to the ground. Edwin included the isles of Anglesea and Man within his dominions, and the other Saxon kings acknowledged his authority by paying him tribute; while his influence extended far into Scotland. His nephew and successor Oswald had spent his youth at Iona, in Scotland, where he imbibed the principles of Christianity, and being desirous of imparting the blessings of his new creed to his subjects, he invited many monks to labour with him in the conversion of his kingdom. By his munificence a noble monastery was founded on the bleak island of Lindisfarne, and churches and convents sprang up in other parts of his dominions.

5. It has been already said that the several kingdoms of the heptarchy, after many wars and disputed successions, merged into three, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. The smaller states, Kent, Sussex, Essex, and East Anglia having

sunk before them, it now remained to be seen which of the three should have the superiority over the others, and be the centre of a united state. The kingdom of Northumbria, from foreign invasion and internal discord, had become such a scene of anarchy, that of the fourteen kings who occupied the throne during a century, one only died with the crown on his head. Six were murdered by their kinsmen or rivals, five were expelled by their subjects, and two became monks. Mercia rose upon the ruins of Northumbria, and in 737, Ethelbald, its king, was monarch of the whole country south of the Humber; but five years later, Wessex recovered its independence at the battle of Burford, in Oxfordshire. Offa the Terrible, as he was called, successfully reasserted the superiority of Mercia. After subduing parts of Sussex and Kent, and wresting from Wessex all her territories on the left of the Thames, he drove the Welsh beyond the Wye, and to protect his subjects from their incursions, he caused a ditch and rampart (Offa's Dyke) to be drawn all along the country from the mouth of the Dee to the Severn, near Bristol. This work was hardly finished when the Welsh broke through it. Offa immediately marched against them, and, in a battle near Rhuddlan, their king perished with the flower of the nobility. Ten years of victory and conquest rendered him neither vain nor proud; but his ambition was insatiable, and in its gratification he perpetrated many cruel and treacherous murders. He was a munificent benefactor to the church, and not without a taste for the elegances of life. He built a palace, which was the wonder of the age, and his medals and coins are superior to any of that period. His last warlike exploit was the defeat

A. D. } of a body of Danes, who had already begun their de-
795. } solating incursions on our coasts.

At the time of Offa's death the throne of Wessex was occupied by Beortric, his unsuccessful rival Egbert having taken refuge at the court of Charlemagne, where he resided fourteen years. Beortric died by poison administered by his own wife, and Egbert, immediately returning to Wessex, was received by the people with open arms. He signalized his

A. D. } accession to the throne by his victories over the ancient
800. } Britons in Devonshire and Cornwall. He next turned his arms against Bernulf, who had usurped the crown of Mercia, and had invaded Wessex with all his forces. Bernulf was defeated in 823 on the banks of the Willy, and killed in a second battle in 825. Egbert attached Mercia and all its

dependencies to his own kingdom, and not long afterwards, the Northumbrians south of the Tweed submitted to his authority. The several Saxon states, about three hundred years after the commencement of the Heptarchy, were united under one sovereign, and England formed an extensive kingdom from the river Tweed to the extremity of Cornwall.

EXERCISES.

1. From what part of Europe did the people called Saxons come? Were they all strictly Saxons, or did they consist partly of other tribes? Give the names of the chief tribes. What was the character of this people? What were their habits? What was the occasion of their coming to England? How did they take possession of the country?

2. What was England called when it had several Saxon kings? Name the kingdoms of the Heptarchy. Why was the word Heptarchy used towards them? Did they always consist of seven states? Describe generally how they were more or less numerous. What are the names of the three states in which they were at last included? What name was sometimes given to a general leader of the states? What kind of power did he exercise?

3. From what do we derive our knowledge of the religion of the Saxons? What was its character? What system of Paganism did it resemble? State the names of some of the gods. Give some names of places and other words still in use which are derived from the names of these gods.

4. When was Christianity introduced among the Saxons? What is related of young English slaves in Rome? What was the effect of the first missions? Where did Sebert build a church? Describe what took place when Redwald the bretwalda received baptism. Where did Oswald learn the Christian religion? Where did he found a monastery?

5. What was the fate of the kingdom of Northumbria? Narrate the history of Offa. How did Beortric die? What were the first feats of Egbert? What was the fate of Bernulf and his kingdom? What kingdoms did Egbert finally attach to his own? What was the result of his career?

CHAPTER III.

FROM THE END OF THE HEPTARCHY TO THE DEATH OF ALFRED, A. D. 825—901.

Egbert, king of England—First Danish Invasions—Description of the Danes—Battle of Hengsdown Hill—Ethelwulf's and Ethelred's Conflicts with the Danes—Alfred the Great—His early Perils—Retreat in the Island of Athelney—Destruction of the Danish Army—Hasting's Incursions—State of Learning and Religion at Alfred's Accession—Eminent Scholars at his Court—His Literary Works—Political and Social Arrangements—Trial by Jury.

1. **EGBERT** did not assume the title of king of England, but was content to be called king of Wessex, with the dignity and

authority of *bretwalda*. His subjects had scarcely begun to enjoy the blessings of a regular government when they had to suffer from the incursions of Scandinavian pirates, and to experience all the bitterness of a conquest similar to that by which they had reduced the ancient Britons.

INVASIONS OF THE DANES.—The Saxons of the fifth century, the Danes of the ninth, and the Norman conquerors of the eleventh, were one race of people, belonging to the great Scandinavian tribes, who, under different names at different epochs, re-composed most of the states of Europe on the downfall of the Roman empire. The Saxons of the Rhine and Germany, fleeing from the terrible persecutions of Charlemagne, had fixed their abode in the peninsula of Jutland, which had been nearly evacuated by the Jutes and Angles, who went to conquer England. Here, uniting with their maritime neighbours, and merged in one common name, they retaliated in a fearful manner upon all the coast of France. Being confirmed in their idolatry by the cruelty of Charlemagne, they soon became a mere horde of savages, whose chief pursuits were piracy and bloodshed, and whose only home was the stormy ocean. "The might of the tempest aids the arms of our rowers," said they; "the hurricane is our servant, and drives us wherever we desire to go." Nothing could resist men whose courage and audacity bordered on madness. On land they spared no one; and with feelings imbittered by recent persecution, they treated the Saxons as renegades who had deserted the faith of their common ancestors. They particularly delighted in shedding the blood of priests, whenever their incursions carried them into a Christian land. "We have sung them a spear mass," they would say in derision; "it began with the dawn and lasted until sunset."

In their first incursions into England, the Danes were assisted by the ancient population, who gladly seized the opportunity of avenging themselves on their conquerors. In 834, they found numerous allies in Devonshire and Cornwall; but their decisive defeat at Hengsdown Hill for a time put a stop to their inroads. This was Egbert's last warlike exploit, A. D. }
836. } and two years afterwards a peaceful death terminated his long and eventful reign.

2. Egbert was succeeded by his son **ETHELWULF**. It was not long before the Danes began to renew their piratical incursions, ravaging all the southern coasts of Wessex and Kent, and pillaging London, Rochester, and Canterbury. They were

met at Okely, in Surrey, by the king and his son Ethelbald, and routed with immense slaughter; they suffered a similar defeat at Sandwich in Kent, and at Wenbury in Devonshire. But although these severe checks compelled the Danes to suspend their attacks, so great was the terror they inspired, that every Wednesday was set apart as a day of public prayer to implore the assistance of Heaven against them.

During the reign of the worthless **ETHELBERT**, the Danes made a permanent settlement in the isle of Thanet. In 866, he was succeeded by **ETHELRED**, who in the course of one year had to fight nine pitched battles against the invaders. Assisted by his younger brother Alfred, he drove them from the centre of Mercia, into which they had penetrated; but while he was engaged with the enemy in the west and south, the Mercians and Northumbrians withdrew from his allegiance, and left him to contend against the Danes with his West Saxons alone, his hereditary subjects. Several battles were fought with various success. On one occasion, Ethelred had divided his army into two bodies, one of which was commanded by his brother Alfred, then only twenty-two years old, who was tempted impetuously to attack the enemy, and with his division was in great danger of being destroyed, when Ethelred and his troops appeared, and the Danes fled. It is related that Ethelred was at mass when the battle began; and that he said no mere human object should call him from the service of God. The victory was naturally attributed to his piety rather than to the courage of his soldiers. Such was the battle of Aston. The Danes, however, reinforced with fresh troops from the north, continued to gain ground; and their victories at Basing and Mereton wiped away the disgrace of Aston. Ethelred died in consequence of a wound received in A. D. } battle, and left his crown to Alfred, the only surviving
871. } and the most renowned of all the sons of Ethelwulf.

3. **ALFRED**, the glory of our Saxon monarchs, had scarcely time to follow his brother to the grave, before he was called on to fight for the crown to which he had succeeded. A desperate engagement took place at Wilton in Wiltshire, where, although the young monarch was defeated, so serious was the loss of the enemy, and such their dread of Alfred's military prowess, that they readily concluded a treaty, and left him in undisturbed possession of his kingdom of Wessex during a period of three years. For some time afterwards, the Danish incursions were principally directed to the north of England,

a large portion of which the invaders divided among themselves, and intermarrying with the Saxon population, the distinction between the two races was gradually obliterated. Mercia and East Anglia also no longer existed as Saxon kingdoms, so that Alfred with his men of Wessex, had to sustain almost the whole brunt of the contest with the Danes.

He employed the brief interval of peace in fitting out a few ships to prevent the landing of the pirates, and to cut off their means of being supplied with food. His first fleet, though small, attacked a squadron of seven Danish ships, one of which was taken and the others put to flight. Such was the effect of this victory, that the Danes, who had landed in Devonshire and surprised the Castle of Wareham, agreed to treat for peace, and to evacuate that district. The treaty was ill kept, for on the very next night Alfred nearly fell into the hands of a marauding party, as he was riding with a small force to Winchester. He soon afterwards, however, defeated another formidable squadron, which so dispirited the Danish king Guthrun, who kept possession of Exeter, that he capitulated, gave hostages, and withdrew his army into Mercia. He did not, however, retire farther than Gloucester, from which city

A. D. } he suddenly issued on New Year's day, and surprised
878 } Alfred at Chippenham. The king escaped with a small band into the woods; but his subjects were so wearied out, that they gave way to despair. Some retreated into Wales, others to the isle of Wight and to the shores of the opposite continent, while the majority submitted to their ferocious conquerors.

Alfred was now compelled to yield to circumstances. He took refuge in the island of Athelney, a tract of country near the confluence of the Thone and Parret, in the midst of a dense wood and almost impassable marshes, where he is said to have adopted the disguise of a cow-herd. An interesting anecdote referring to this period has been transmitted to us by Asser, his confessor, and repeated by almost all the old chroniclers. They tell us, that one day the honest herdsman's wife, in whose house he resided, had set some cakes to bake on the fire. Leaving the room for a while, she thought her cakes would be safe in the presence of Alfred, who would have nothing better to engage his attention. But the dethroned monarch's mind was busy with high thoughts of victory over the heathen Danes, and a peaceful reign over a united people, and thus occupied, he let the cakes burn unnoticed. The

worthy woman, when she saw his carelessness, cried out, "Man! what are you thinking about—can you not turn the cakes?—you'll be glad enough to eat them." Here he lay for some time concealed, waiting for a favourable opportunity to recover his throne and liberate his people. His retreat was known only to a faithful few, and by degrees a bold and resolute band gathered around him.

4. Alfred had spent several months in his hiding-place, when he learned that Hubba, a Danish chief, had been slain with nearly a thousand followers in an attempt to land in Devonshire, and that their magical banner, a raven embroidered in one noontide by the hands of the three daughters of the great Lodbroke, had been taken. This favourable omen inspired him with confidence; but, before taking any decisive step, he resolved to examine in person the position of the Danes. Disguising himself as a wandering musician, he strolled into Guthrun's camp, where, without suspicion, he was permitted to amuse the soldiers with his music. While thus occupied, he observed all that passed; he noticed the negligence of his enemies, and became acquainted with their plans. On returning to Athelney, he summoned his faithful subjects to meet him in arms at Egbert's Stone, near Selwood Forest. They cheerfully obeyed his call, and, taking the Danes by surprise, thoroughly defeated them at the battle of Ethandune, a few miles from Chippenham. Within a fortnight they were compelled to accept the conditions offered by Alfred, namely, that they should evacuate Wessex, and that their king should submit to be baptized. Guthrun was christened, under the Saxon name of Athelstan, at the royal town of Wedmor, Alfred being his sponsor. On his profession of Christianity, he received an accession of territory, the whole eastern country from the Thames to the Tweed being formally ceded to him under the name of *Danelagh* or *Danelaw*, by which it was known even to the time of the Norman conquest. Guthrun's subjects gradually acquired peaceful and industrious habits. Engagements were made by their rulers to promote Christianity and punish apostasy, and they were brought under laws for the protection of property and the enforcement of bargains.

The time, however, had not yet arrived when the kingdom was to enjoy the blessings of peace, or its sovereign that leisure he was so anxious to devote to the welfare and improvement of his people. Although Guthrun remained faithful to

his engagements, new swarms of Danes, not bound by them, continued to infest the shores of England. Alfred's infant navy, however, proved very serviceable in repelling their incursions. He now rebuilt and fortified the city of London, and also employed himself in strengthening the other portions of his kingdom,—a salutary precaution, for the severest struggle was yet to come. In 893, a fleet of 330 ships, under the command of Hasting, the most renowned of the Danish leaders, landed on the coast of Kent; and at the same time the people of the Danelagh, whose king, Guthrun, was dead, rose in insurrection and joined their marauding brethren. During three years almost every part of South Britain became in turn the scene of devastation and bloodshed; but the military genius of the British monarch ultimately prevailed, and the remainder of his reign was passed in comparative tranquillity.

5. At the period of Alfred's accession, the English people were sunk in the grossest ignorance. The monasteries, then the only seats of learning, had been destroyed by the Danes, the monks dispersed, and their libraries burnt; so that, in the preface to his translation of Pope Gregory's tract on the Duties of Pastors, the king lamented that there was not one priest south of the Thames, and very few north of the Humber, who could interpret the Latin service. And although he supplied the means of instruction for his subjects, so little inclination was manifested to profit by them, that a law was enacted by which all freeholders, possessed of not less than two hides of land, were enjoined to send their children to school. Alfred is said to have founded the University of Oxford, and to have endowed it with many privileges. The nobility followed their sovereign's example, and he had reason ere long to congratulate himself on the improvement of the habits of his people. His own example was well worthy of imitation: he devoted one-third part of his time to the affairs of government, one-third part to study and devotion, and the remainder to sleep and recreation. On all sides a spirit of industry prevailed; cities, castles, and monasteries rose from their ruins, and the dwellings of the inhabitants assumed an air of comfort and convenience before unknown.

Alfred was a shining light in an age of darkness: he is equally celebrated for his conquests, his wisdom in legislation, and his exertions to promote the civilisation of his people. At his court were entertained some of the most learned men of his time: the Welshman Asser, who wrote his life, Grim-

bald of Rheims, and Joannes Scotus. He left many remarkable compositions in prose and verse; wrote a commentary on Boethius' Consolations of Philosophy; and translated into Anglo-Saxon the Fables of Æsop, Beda's Ecclesiastical History, and the History of Orosius, which he enriched with many valuable remarks. He founded schools, and invited the most eminent men of the day to superintend them. Commerce, manufactures, and agriculture were encouraged by peculiar privileges, and the highways were cleared of robbers. Hence England, emerging from barbarism, and enjoying the blessings of peace, conferred on him the justly merited title of THE GREAT.

Besides attending to internal improvements, this exemplary monarch cultivated an intercourse with different countries, and kept up a frequent communication with Rome, which he had twice visited in his youth. In this he appears to have had in view the extension of commerce as well as the acquisition of knowledge. He sent the Bishop of Sherburn on a mission to the Syrian Christians settled on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel; and from this long and dangerous journey the clerical ambassador returned laden with gems and spices.

Like all great monarchs appearing in a dark age, every good thing in the old constitution of England is attributed to Alfred. He is said to have invented the system of trial by jury, and to have made a division of the whole country into hundreds and tithings. A hundred consisted of a hundred heads of families—a tithing of ten, so that each hundred contained ten tithings. The advantage of this arrangement was, that within each of these little communities the whole were answerable for the conduct of one another. If a robbery was committed within a tithing, the several householders were liable to make it good; and thus all were observers of their neighbour's conduct, and interested in detecting him if he committed a crime. The origin of jury trial is probably connected with this system. A man who was accused got so many of his neighbours to answer for his innocence, and as they were responsible for the offence, if *they* acquitted him, it was considered clear that he must be innocent. It has been well observed, that such institutions are not *made*, they *grow*, and there is no doubt that though Alfred did not create them, his enlightened mind assisted them in their growth.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the title assumed by Egbert? What was the real extent of his power? By whom was England invaded in his time? Describe the people called Danes—their race, the country whence they came, and their connexion with other nations. How were they first received?

2. Who succeeded to Egbert? What were the results of Ethelwulf's conflicts with the Danes? Mention some of the places pillaged by the Danes. Mention a custom showing how the Saxons felt the inroads of the Danes. Who assisted King Ethelred against the Danes? Where were they conquered? What events followed the victory of Aston?

3. What were the circumstances under which Alfred's reign began? How did he employ the interval of peace? What effect did he produce with his fleet? Detail the history of his disasters. Where and in what disguise did he seek refuge? What anecdote is usually told of him in his retreat?

4. What induced Alfred to return to public life? What favourable omen inspired him with confidence? How did he visit Guthrun's camp? Mention how he defeated the Danes? What arrangement did he make with the view of their becoming peaceful citizens? What interfered with the success of his plan? In what year did Hasting's fleet invade England?

5. What was the state of religion at Alfred's accession? What did he do for education? What eminent men did he entertain at his court? What literary works did he accomplish? Describe the arrangement of hundreds and tithings. What connexion is it supposed to have had with jury trial? What share is Alfred supposed to have had in the arrangement?

CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE DEATH OF ALFRED TO CANUTE'S INVASION,
A. D. 901—1016.

Ethelwald—Dunstan and Odo—Edgar the Pacific—Peculiarities of the Anglo-Saxon Church—Edward the Martyr—Danish Invasions under Sweyn—Dane-geld—Massacre of Saint Brice—Sweyn's Revenge—Thurkill the Dane—Ethelred and Sweyn—Saxon Trade and Exports.

1. EDWARD THE ELDER succeeded to his father's throne, but not without opposition, his right being disputed by Ethelwald, the son of Ethelbald, one of Alfred's brothers, who finding himself the weaker competitor, fled into the Danelagh, where his title was acknowledged. Ethelwald's claims were not so ill founded as they would be considered in our own days; for, while the Anglo-Saxons limited the inheritance of the crown to one family, they had not adopted the strict modern rule of lineal succession, which in their days was scarcely known in any part of the world. The children of the last monarch were often overlooked: Alfred himself succeeded to the prejudice

of the sons of his elder brother; and somewhat later the sons of Edmund I. gave place to their uncle Edred, and were in their turn preferred to his issue. It would seem that the public security in those times was incompatible with a royal minority. The strict rule of hereditary succession was not established in England until the time of Edward I.

The reign of **ATHELSTAN**, who succeeded his father, forms an epoch in our early history. At Brunanburgh in 938 he defeated Anlaf, king of Northumbria, and having seized that territory became the first king of all England. After the brief reigns of **EDMUND**, who was murdered at a feast by an outlaw (946), and of **EDRED**, **EDWY** the Fair, a boy only 15 years of age, ascended the throne. The chief troubles of his reign originated in his quarrels with the churchmen, of whom the celebrated **Dunstan** was the chief. This prelate, who was a man of noble birth and accomplished in the arts and learning of his time, was created Archbishop of Canterbury in 960, at the early age of 32. While still abbot of Glastonbury, he was the prime agent in one of the most important events in Edwy's reign. The youthful monarch having married a lady of rank named **Elgiva**, related to him within the prohibited degrees, the nobles and clergy were invited to the coronation banquet, at which, according to the custom of the times, they sat long and drank deeply. Delighting more in the company of his lovely spouse than in that of the riotous revellers, Edwy left the hall before the feast was over, and withdrew with the queen and her mother to an inner apartment of the palace. On finding that he did not return, **Dunstan** rudely broke in upon their retirement, and after insulting the mother and her daughter, dragged the king from his wife's side, and forced him back to the banqueting hall. Such an outrage was more than even the thoughtless Edwy could endure. **Dunstan** was accused of peculation in his office of treasurer to the preceding sovereign, his property was confiscated, and he himself driven into banishment. His disgrace, however, was of short duration, for **Odo**, archbishop of Canterbury, and **Dunstan's** political coadjutor, soon afterwards instigated a general rising of the people, the abbot returned from his exile, and **Edgar**, Edwy's brother, was proclaimed sovereign of all England north of the **Thames**. To fill up the measure of their vengeance, some of **Odo's** retainers seized **Elgiva**, branded her on the face with a red-hot iron, and caused her to be transported to Ireland. She soon, however, recovered from her cruel

wounds, and returning to England more beautiful than before, was taken captive near Gloucester, where, after being barbarously mangled, she expired in great torture. Her afflicted and broken-hearted husband followed her to the grave in the A.D. } succeeding year, and, according to some accounts, the 968. } instrument of his death was the dagger of his enemies.

2. EDGAR, a boy of fifteen, was a passive instrument in the hands of the churchmen; but such was their vigour in the administration of the kingdom, that during his whole reign it was not troubled by a single war, and he obtained the enviable name of the Pacific. He exercised so wide an influence over the whole island, that a story has often been told, that when he was at Chester, eight kings were the rowers of his barge. These were Kenneth of Scotland, Malcolm of Cumbria or Strathclyde, Maccus of Anglesea and the Western Isles, the kings of Galloway and Westmere, and three Welsh sovereigns.

In his private character, however, the king appears to have been a vicious profligate. In the early part of his reign, he carried off a young lady of rank from the convent of Wilton, and was guilty of many similar acts of revolting licentiousness. His marriage with his second wife, Elfrida, was stained with blood. She was the daughter of Ordgar, earl of Devonshire, and remarkable for her beauty, the report of which reached the ears of the voluptuous monarch. To ascertain the correctness of the rumour, he sent his favourite, Athelwold, on a visit to her father; but the courtier, captivated by her charms, married her, and then returning to the king, spoke in disparaging terms of her personal attractions. The fraud succeeded only for a time, and Edgar declared his intention of seeing the lady. Athelwold, having obtained leave to precede his master that he might prepare for his reception, besought his wife to disguise her beauty; but Elfrida, dazzled by the lustre of a crown, exerted all her fascinations to win the king's affections. In this she succeeded but too well, and Edgar, after Athelwold's murder, married his widow. He A.D. } survived this marriage about six years, and died at the 975. } early age of thirty-two.

It was the great aim of Dunstan's life to assimilate the Anglo-Saxon Church with that of Rome; but the specific points of difference are not in all instances very clear. While rejecting the doctrine of transubstantiation, the English clergy practised image-worship to a great extent, and a belief in purgatory formed part of their creed. Penance, confession,

and expiatory masses for the dead were strictly enforced, and the Virgin Mary was held in the greatest honour. The most important distinction, however, existed between the two churches with regard to the marriage of the clergy, and Dunstan, in the true spirit of monasticism, determined on carrying out the rule of celibacy laid down by Gregory II. The priests were compelled to dismiss their wives and children; the secular canons were driven out of the cathedrals and monasteries, and their places filled by ecclesiastics.

3. EDWARD, called the Martyr, was under fifteen years of age when he succeeded to his father's crown, his right to which was disputed by his stepmother Elfrida on behalf of her own son Ethelred, then only six years old. The legitimate king prevailed, chiefly through the instrumentality of Dunstan and his friends; but a horrible tragedy soon removed every obstacle from the path of the ambitious queen-dowager. It happened that about three years after his accession, as Edward was hunting in Dorsetshire, he went to visit his half-brother Ethelred, then living with his mother in Corfe castle. Elfrida welcomed him at the gate, and invited him to alight; but Edward would take only a draught of wine as he sat on horseback. While he was raising the cup to his lips, one of Elfrida's attendants stabbed him in the back, upon which the king put spurs to his horse and galloped off; but soon becoming faint from loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, and one of his feet getting entangled in the stirrup, he was dragged along the ground till his body became a shapeless corpse (978).

ETHELRED the Unready, who now inherited the crown, was deeply afflicted at the death of his half-brother. But the odium of Edward's murder attached no less to him than to his mother, and an attempt was made to bring forward Edgitha, the daughter of the lady whom Edgar had carried off from the convent of Wilton. She preferred, however, the sweets of retirement to the cares and anxieties of royalty, and as
 A.D. } there was no other descendant in the royal line, the boy
 979 } Ethelred was crowned in the old chapel of Kingston.

Ethelred had not been seated on the throne more than three years, when the Danes recommenced their ravages by plundering Southampton, London, and Chester. During several years, while the effeminate sovereign was occupied in disputes with his nobles, the northern pirates continued their incursions till the year 991, when he purchased their forbearance by paying to them 10,000 pounds of silver. But such a sacri-

rice did not procure more than a temporary repose ; for, tempted by the pusillanimous conduct of the English monarch, fresh hordes of the Northmen soon made their appearance ; and in 994, Olave of Norway and Sweyn of Denmark exacted 16,000 pounds as the price of their departure. By a clause in the treaty, these sea-kings bound themselves to embrace the Christian faith ; but although Olave faithfully observed the conditions, Sweyn seems to have considered baptism as nothing more than an idle ceremony. Ethelred had neither fleet nor army to keep the pirates in check, and in 1001, he found himself again under the necessity of bribing them with the enormous sum of 24,000 pounds of silver. This money was raised by a land-tax, and the *Dane-geld* soon became a permanent and oppressive burden upon the people. But they had still greater evils to endure than the payment of this heavy impost. In terms of the treaties, large bodies of the invaders were allowed to winter in the island, by whom the inhabitants were subjected to every species of insult and contumely. The English yeomen were driven from their houses, and compelled to perform the most menial offices, while their wives and daughters were exposed to the most revolting treatment. In their despair, they resolved to exterminate their oppressors :
 13th Nov. } an extensive conspiracy was formed, and on the
 1002. } festival of Saint Brice they fell suddenly on the Danes, who were massacred in great numbers, without distinction of age or sex.

4. Sweyn, king of Denmark, whose sister Gunhilda had perished under circumstances of great atrocity in the general massacre, soon after landed with a numerous army to avenge his murdered countrymen. He carried fire and sword through great part of the kingdom : the husbandmen ceased to cultivate those fields which an enemy reaped or laid waste ; cities, towns, and villages were burnt to the ground ; famine aggravated the wretchedness of the people ; and anarchy and confusion completed the ruin of the most flourishing districts. At length, when the impoverished country could no longer supply plunder to his rapacious followers, Sweyn was again
 A.D. } prevailed on to leave its shores by the payment of
 1002. } 36,000 pounds of silver.

It was soon found that no amount of tribute-money could procure more than a temporary respite from the invasions of the Northmen ; and it was accordingly resolved that every landholder should be taxed for the purpose of raising an army

and equipping a navy for the defence of the kingdom. In the spring of the following year, a large fleet was fitted out; but dissension and treachery ere long rendered it useless. Eighty of the vessels were overtaken by a storm and wrecked on the coast; and Ethelred, either through fear or caprice, having abandoned his charge of the remainder, the principal officers followed him, and the seamen, thus deserted by their leaders, separated and carried back the ships to their respective harbours.

As soon as Thurkill, the Dane, heard of this disaster, he reappeared in East Anglia. Canterbury, which during twenty days was nobly defended by Alphege, its archbishop, was at last gained by treachery, and the cathedral church, in which a crowd of women and children had taken refuge with the priests and monks, was burnt to the ground. All who endeavoured to escape from the flaming pile fell by the merciless swords of the Danes. The archbishop was spared some time in the hope of a heavy ransom; but the prelate was poor, and refusing to purchase his life with gold wrung from the suffering people, the barbarians at length put him to death. Seven thousand men, besides those who perished in the cathedral, fell in the sack of Canterbury. After an exterminating war, which lasted three years, Ethelred purchased Thurkill's friendship and a short-lived peace for 48,000 pounds of silver, with the formal cession of several counties.

On receiving intelligence of the wealth acquired by Thurkill, Sweyn's cupidity was strongly excited, and he resolved to attempt the conquest of all England. At the head of a formidable fleet, he appeared before Sandwich, where he hoped to bring about a revolution by seducing the Danes in Ethelred's pay. Failing in his attempts to shake their fidelity, he shaped his course to the north, and sailing up the Humber, took post at Gainsborough, where he was joined by the Northumbrians, and the men of Lindesey and the *Five Burghs* (Lincoln, Derby, Stamford, Nottingham, and Leicester). He now marched to the south, levying contributions and destroying everything that impeded his progress: Oxford and Winchester opened their gates; but London repelled all his attacks. At Bath he assumed the title of King of England, and summoned the thanes of Mercia, Northumbria and Wessex to acknowledge his title and do him homage. The terror he inspired proved of more avail than the legitimacy invoked by Ethelred, who found himself suddenly deserted by the greater

portion of his nobility. Thurkill and the unfortunate monarch then withdrew to Greenwich, upon which London submitted to the Danes, and was entered by Sweyn in triumph. Ethelred, already separated from his queen, Emma, and her two A.D. }
1014 } sons, whom he had sent to Normandy, soon after quitted England and rejoined his wife.

5. Three weeks had scarcely elapsed after Ethelred's departure, when Sweyn, attacked by a mortal illness, hastened to make his last arrangements, and call his son Canute to succeed him on the throne of England. The death of the man whose genius had subdued them, encouraged the English in the hope of shaking off the Danish yoke; and the thanes and clergy, meeting in London, despatched a messenger to the exiled Ethelred, inviting him to resume his throne, "provided he would govern better than before." Ethelred sent over his son Edward, with solemn promises to forget the past, and to take the advice of the witan or wise men, who formed the great council or parliament of the Saxon kingdom. A new oath of allegiance was taken by the thanes, and a sentence of outlawry pronounced against every Dane who should assume the title of King of England.

Ethelred's first care was to assemble an army to confine Canute within the limits of the Danelagh; and as the king's return had excited a lively enthusiasm among his subjects, his forces were so numerous as to deprive Canute of every hope of success, and he was therefore constrained to leave England. Meanwhile, all Lindsey was ravaged by Ethelred's troops, and the inhabitants of Danish origin were put to the sword. Canute soon after reappeared on the south-eastern coast, and landed near Sandwich, where he was informed of the slaughter of his countrymen. He immediately caused the sons of some of the noblest families in England, whom his father had received as hostages, to be brought before him, and after cutting off their noses, hands, and ears, abandoned them on the shore, and returned to Denmark for reinforcements.

Misfortune had not improved Ethelred; and it was soon discovered that he had brought back from Normandy the same indolence and cruelty that had marked the previous thirty-five years of his reign. Many nobles of Danish descent were sacrificed to his revenge. On one occasion Sigeferth and Morcar, two of the most distinguished lords of Mercia, and chiefs of the Five Burghs, were invited to a banquet, and as they were raising the wine-cup to their lips, they fell beneath

the daggers of Ethelred's assassins. Their followers, in alarm, took refuge in a church; but the sacred edifice afforded them no protection, for it was immediately set on fire, and they perished miserably in the flames. Alienated by such base conduct, the king's friends now began to desert him; and Thurkill, who had so valiantly defended him against Sweyn and Canute, profited by the opportune receipt of 20,000 pounds of silver to return to Denmark and become reconciled with his sovereign. This chieftain afterwards headed Canute's invading army, which reached England just as death closed the long A.D. } and calamitous reign of Ethelred. He left three sons by 1016 } his first wife, Edmund, Edwy, and Athelstan; and two by his second, Edward and Alfred, who were confided to the care of their uncle, Duke Richard II. of Normandy.

6. EDMUND, surnamed Ironside, had hastened to London at the first intelligence of the king's illness, and was proclaimed by the citizens immediately after his father's decease. He vigorously opposed Canute, whom he twice compelled to raise the siege of the capital. After many sanguinary battles, the rival princes agreed to divide the island between them, the northern portion to be ruled by Canute, and the southern by Edmund, the latter retaining a nominal superiority over the portion of the former. This treaty was hardly concluded when Edmund suddenly died (1017), leaving two infant children, Edward and Edmund.

Under King Ethelred, a toll was levied upon every boat arriving at Billingsgate; and the imports were wine and fish from France, with cloth, pepper, cloves, and vinegar from Germany and Flanders. One of the most important Anglo-Saxon exports was wool, of which the Flemings were the chief purchasers. Other exports were horses and slaves, Ireland being a favourite market for the latter commodity. A curious fact shows how trivial was the home-trade of England: No person was allowed to buy anything above the value of twenty pennies, except within a town, and in the presence of the chief magistrate or of two witnesses. This regulation, no doubt, principally concerned the raising of the king's revenue, the buyer and seller each paying a certain toll on the value of the purchase. Communication between distant parts was comparatively easy: four great roads which had been made by the Romans still existed, and canals were cut in some places.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the nature of Ethelwald's claims to the crown? Was the succession to the Saxon crown in the direct hereditary order of modern times? Mention other instances which show the nature of this succession. In whose reign did Dunstan become conspicuous? Describe the acts done by him and Odo.

2. What was the public character of Edgar? And what was his private character? What was his conduct to Athelwold? Describe the nature of Dunstan's projects during this reign.

3. What was the designation given to King Edward? Describe his death. What events occurred in the reign of Ethelred? Who were Olave and Sweyn, and what acts did they do? Give an account of the *Dane-geld* and its purpose.

4. Describe the actions of Sweyn on his second landing. What was the conduct of Ethelred? What was done at the cathedral of Canterbury? Describe the circumstances that preceded and accompanied Sweyn's triumphal entry into London.

5. Under what circumstances was Ethelred recalled to the throne? Whose advice did he promise to take? How did he fulfil his engagements? What were his acts of cruelty?

6. Who succeeded Ethelred on the throne? By whom were his claims contested? What agreement was entered into between Edmund and Canute? Did Edmund long survive the treaty? What were the imports during Ethelred's reign? What were the exports? Describe a regulation showing the smallness of the trade of the Saxons.

 CHAPTER V.

 FROM THE ACCESSION OF CANUTE TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST,
 A. D. 1016—1066.

Canute—Danish Emigration—Anglo-Danish Code—Canute's Pilgrimage to Rome—Harold and Hardicanute—Edward the Confessor—Norman Influence at the Court—Rebellion of Earl Godwin—Rise of Harold's Power—Harold—Defeat of the Norwegian Invaders—William, duke of Normandy—Battle of Hastings—Condition of England—Learning and Literature—Manners and Customs of the Anglo-Saxons—Commerce and Manufactures.

1. CANUTE, immediately upon Edmund's death, convoked the witan, by which he was unanimously raised to the vacant throne. The first care of the new monarch was to get rid of all the members of the Saxon royal family who might become his rivals, and also of those chiefs who had formerly opposed his claims. Having murdered Edmund's brother Edwy, he seized the two infant sons of the deceased monarch, and sent them to his brother Olave, king of Sweden, with a request

that they might be so disposed of as to cause no farther trouble. Olave, however, unwilling to stain his hands with innocent blood, conveyed them to the court of Stephen, king of Hungary, by whom they were educated as his own children. Edward afterwards married the Princess Agatha, daughter of the Emperor Henry II., and became the father of Edgar Atheling and Margaret. Margaret became the wife of Malcolm of Scotland, through whom the claims of the line of Alfred were transmitted to Malcolm's descendants after the Norman Conquest.

Canute, having no longer any thing to fear from the progeny of his predecessor, now turned his attention to the sons of Ethelred by Emma. The two princes were still in Normandy, and he knew that Duke Richard II. was preparing an armament to enforce their claims to the crown of England. But Canute had the wisdom to avert the impending danger by demanding the hand of Emma their mother; and the widow, forgetting the wrongs of her family in the dazzling prospects of royalty, readily gave her consent to the marriage, which was soon afterwards solemnized with great pomp and splendour.

2. To recompense the warriors who had so ably served him, Canute divided England into four governments: East Anglia he gave to Thurkill, with the title of duke; Northumbria to Eric; Mercia to Edric, the faithless favourite of Ethelred and Edmund; and Wessex he administered in person. He had soon, however, cause to suspect the fidelity of these governors; and at a Christmas festival held in London, at which Edric imprudently boasted of his services, he ordered him to be assassinated, and his body thrown into the Thames. Thurkill and Eric were some time after expelled from the kingdom; and the lands of the slain or banished Saxons received new proprietors from among the crowd of Danish adventurers. But the hatred of the natives followed these foreign possessors of the soil, and anxious to enjoy in peace the fruits of their labour, many of the Danes sold their estates, and returned to their own country. Such a system of emigration was readily encouraged by Canute, who, foreseeing that the animosity which existed between his English and Danish subjects would only increase by the prolonged sojourn of the latter in England, and that eventually it would endanger his throne, determined to send away all who were not necessary to the consolidation of his power. He therefore imposed on the city

of London a tax of about 15,000 pounds of silver; and on the rest of the nation, the sum of 72,000 pounds. This money he apportioned among the soldiers whom he disbanded and sent back to Denmark, reserving only 3000 picked men as a body-guard. He commanded these in person, and subjected them to a severe code of regulations, chiefly with a view to the prevention of quarrelling, which was very common among them, and generally ended in bloodshed. From these regulations he did not exempt himself; and it is related that having killed a soldier in a moment of passion, he appeared before the assembled guard, without either crown or sceptre, and declared his willingness to submit to any chastisement they should impose. In accordance with the usage of the period, a pecuniary fine was deemed sufficient compensation, and he voluntarily paid nine times the amount of the penalty. Such a monarch was soon understood by his new subjects, and they bore his heavy taxes without a murmur.

3. Being now in peaceable possession of the throne, Canute applied himself to heal the wounds which had been inflicted on the country during the long internal wars. He confirmed the laws enacted during the reign of Edgar, and promulgated a new code based on the legislation of previous sovereigns. The natives and his Danish followers were placed upon a footing of perfect equality, the highest offices in the state being impartially divided among them. Nor did he neglect those acts of piety which the monks recommended as most meritorious. He built a church at Assington in commemoration of the victory which placed him on the throne; endowed monasteries, restored St Edmund's Abbey, which Sweyn had burnt, and gave large sums of money to defray the expense of masses for the souls of those who had fallen in his battles.

The king, who had now become the favourite of the clergy, conducted numerous missionaries to Denmark, by whose exertions the Christian religion was rapidly propagated in that country. But in his anxiety for the spread of religion, he did not forget his claims to the sovereignty of Norway and Sweden; and having fitted out a fleet of fifty vessels, manned principally by his Anglo-Saxon subjects, he succeeded in reducing these countries to obedience. His last warlike demonstration was against Malcolm of Scotland, who refused to acknowledge
 A.D. } his supremacy over Cumbria, on the ground that he
 1081. } was a usurper; but negotiations prevented an appeal to

the sword, and Duncan, the grandson of the Scottish king, agreed to do homage for the territory.

Canute, now at the height of prosperity, determined to visit Rome, with a wallet on his back and a pilgrim's staff in his hand. Wherever he halted, he left some evidence of his liberality; and, on his return through the city of Pavia, he gave a hundred talents of silver and as many of gold for the arm of Saint Augustine, which he afterwards presented to the church of Coventry. He survived his pilgrimage three years, which was an acceptable period of repose to his subjects. He died at Shaftesbury in 1035, and was buried at Winchester.

4. Canute left three sons, Sweyn, Harold, and Hardicanute, of whom the last only was legitimate, and among them he wished his empire to be divided. Sweyn was to receive Norway; Hardicanute, Denmark; and Harold, England; which last was esteemed by far the best portion. But the people of the south declared in favour of Hardicanute, whose cause was espoused by the great Earl Godwin. To prevent a civil war, the witan met at Oxford, and decided that Harold should have all the country north of the Thames, including London; while the remainder should belong to Hardicanute. The latter, however, still lingered in his continental dominions, leaving his mother Emma and Godwin to govern his insular territory. Edward, the eldest surviving son of Ethelred, now attempted to establish his claims to his father's throne; and sailing from Normandy, landed at Southampton; but he was compelled to abandon the enterprise, being opposed by a body of troops raised against him by his own mother.

Emma now became reconciled with Harold, and went to reside in London at the court of her children's enemy. From this place a letter was sent, in her name, to the two princes, who were living in Normandy, informing them that the Anglo-Saxons, disgusted with Harold's government, were disposed to throw off his yoke. She therefore invited them to repair promptly and secretly to England, in order to confer with her and their friends on the means of asserting their rights to the crown. Alfred, the younger of the two brothers, accepted the invitation; and at the head of a few troops landed near Canterbury, where he was met by Earl Godwin, who promised to conduct him to his mother. Instead, however, of leading him to London, the earl took him to Guildford, where he quartered Alfred's escort among the inhabitants; and during the night, a body of Harold's soldiers entered the town, fell upon the

strangers as they lay asleep, and made them prisoners. At daybreak they were collected to the number of six hundred, and barbarously murdered, with the exception of every tenth man, and a few who were reserved as slaves. Alfred was tied half-naked on a wretched horse, and taken to Ely, where he was condemned to lose his eyes; and the sentence was executed with such barbarity, that he died a few days after. The unnatural Emma, who is said to have been banished from England by Harold's command, retired to the court of Baldwin, earl of Flanders.

5. HAROLD, exulting in the success of his bloodstained policy, seized on Hardicanute's possessions, and was proclaimed king of all England. Ethelnoth, archbishop of Canterbury, at first refused to perform the ceremony of his coronation, and placing the crown and sceptre on the altar, exclaimed: "Canute intrusted to me these ensigns of royalty: I will neither give them to thee, nor prevent thee from taking them; but I will not bless thee, nor shall any bishop consecrate thee." It is believed, however, that the scruples of the haughty archbishop were overcome by a few timely presents, and that the coronation was afterwards solemnly performed. Harold died in 1040, after a reign of four years.

HARDICANUTE, his half-brother, was unanimously chosen to fill the vacant throne; and one of the first acts of his reign was to exhume the corpse of his predecessor, and throw it into the Thames. The mutilated body was picked up by some fishermen, and secretly interred in the churchyard of St Clement, the burying-place of the Danes. Earl Godwin, who felt conscious of being considered an accomplice in the murder of Alfred,—a crime committed to serve the cause of Harold,—is said to have willingly assisted in this barbarous treatment of his late sovereign's remains, hoping thereby to allay suspicion. He was nevertheless publicly charged with the crime; but the present of a stately ship, superbly gilt and ornamented, with a figurehead of pure gold, and a crew of eighty chosen men, is said to have softened the king's wrath, and smoothed the road to the earl's acquittal.

Hardicanute's exactions to support his numerous army weighed heavily upon the nation; and the discontent became so great, that at Worcester two collectors of taxes fell victims to the popular fury. The exasperated monarch vowed the destruction of the city; and after subjecting it during four days to the pillage of his licentious soldiery, he ordered it to

be set on fire. The inhabitants had retired to the adjacent island of Bevereye, and defended themselves so energetically, that the king was at length constrained to pardon them, and allow them to resume possession of their ruined dwellings.

This event showed that the spirit of independence was not entirely extinguished in the Anglo-Saxons. The oppression under which they groaned was hard to bear, and often awoke in them a recollection of their ancient liberty. Treated as a vanquished nation, they longed earnestly for an opportunity of shaking off the yoke of their oppressors; and on the death of the king, which took place before he had completed the second year of his reign, they hoped that the time had at last arrived for their emancipation. Hardicanute, the last of the Danish monarchs, having attended the marriage-feast of one of his nobles at Lambeth, fell down suddenly, as he was raising the wine-cup to his lips, and expired soon after he

A.D. }
1042 } was carried to an inner chamber.

6. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.—The son of Ethelred succeeded his half-brother, Hardicanute, almost without opposition, and received the crown from the hands of Archbishop Edsy, in the cathedral of Winchester. He rewarded the services of Earl Godwin on this occasion, by raising his sons to the highest dignities, and by marrying his daughter Edith, according to a promise he had made when the earl declared in his favour. The new king was then forty years old; and twenty-seven years of exile had impressed his character with so much mildness and moderation, that his subjects looked confidently forward to a period of happiness and repose. The principal objects of his government were the preservation of peace, the diminution of taxes, the just administration of the laws, and the promotion of religion.

The first act of Edward's administration was one which, though commonly attended with dangerous consequences, did not affect his popularity. It was the resumption of all the grants made by his immediate predecessors, which the poverty of the crown rendered absolutely necessary; and as the loss fell principally upon the Danes, who had received these grants for their services in subduing the country, the English rather rejoiced in seeing them stripped of their possessions.

When Edward, the descendant of a long race of native kings, ascended the throne, the English flattered themselves that they would be delivered from the dominion of foreigners; but they soon found that the evil had only been diverted into another

channel. During his sojourn on the continent he had become habituated to foreign manners and customs, and on his return to England he bestowed all his confidence on the Normans who accompanied him. It was no doubt natural that he should retain an affection for those among whom he had passed the best part of his life, and with whom he had found an asylum when abandoned by his own friends and kindred; but there were other reasons for the partiality he so strongly manifested. During the reign of his predecessors, the English nobles had made serious inroads on the prerogatives of the crown, and within their respective territories were more powerful than the king himself. They even raised troops, levied taxes, and administered the laws as independent sovereigns. At the same time they were much behind the Normans in the refinements of civilized life; while they were the objects of Edward's jealousy on account of their formidable power and large possessions. The consequence was, that the English court soon became filled with Normans, who, under favour of the king, effected great changes in the country. The French language quickly rose in public estimation, and the Saxon nobles not only learned to speak the new dialect, but imitated the customs and amusements of the foreigners. The lawyers adopted the new idiom and handwriting in their deeds and papers; while the long and ample cloaks of the Anglo-Saxons were abandoned for the short mantles of Normandy. Edward, however, did not carry his partiality so far as to exclude the Saxons from all civil and military employments; yet a large share fell to his favourites, and many of the highest dignities and important offices in church and state, including the sees of London, Dorchester, and Canterbury, were confided to men of foreign birth, who soon obtained great influence in public affairs.

7. The English could not view without jealousy this large influx of strangers, who seemed to require no other passport to royal favour than that of being Norman adventurers; and Earl Godwin in particular became alarmed for the stability of his power. He placed himself in open hostility to the Norman courtiers, and endeavoured by every means within his reach to influence the minds of his countrymen against them. Nor was it long before an event occurred which promised to favour his cause. In 1051, Eustace, count of Boulogne, who had married Edward's sister, having been on a visit at the English court, passed through Dover on his return homewards; and his followers being insolently quartered upon the inhabitants, a

Frenchman, who endeavoured to take forcible possession of his lodging, was killed in the fray. Upon this a fierce conflict ensued, in which about twenty were slain on each side, and Eustace with difficulty escaped and made his way to Gloucester, to lay his complaint before the king. Edward espoused the cause of his relative, and ordered Godwin, in whose states the city lay, to chastise Dover with military execution. The earl proposed that the magistrates should be cited in a legal manner to give an account of their conduct; but the king would not listen to this reasonable proposition, and threatened Godwin with banishment and confiscation. Under these circumstances the earl gathered his forces together, and being joined by a large body of the people who voluntarily took up arms, he marched against the king, demanding that Eustace and his companions should be given up, and the Norman favourites immediately dismissed. Edward was taken by surprise, but wisely endeavoured to gain time by negotiation, during which he collected his troops, and was speedily in a condition to take the field. The effusion of blood was however prevented by the adoption of moderate measures, and an armistice was concluded, by which it was agreed to refer all differences to a witenagemot or meeting of the witan, to be held at London in the following autumn. This delay was fatal to the cause of Godwin, for his forces dwindled away, and at length he and his family were compelled to flee from England. All their property was confiscated; their honours were conferred upon foreigners; and Edith, the queen, after being deprived of her dower, her jewels, and her money, was confined in the nunnery of Wherwell in Hampshire.

8. The ruin of Godwin's power left Edward free to follow the bent of his inclination, and he welcomed all the Normans who chose to take up their abode in England. At the beginning of the insurrection he had solicited the assistance of William, duke of Normandy, who appeared on the English coast just as peace was restored. The king, though no longer requiring the aid of his powerful neighbour, invited him to land, and William, accompanied by a brilliant train of knights, visited the principal cities and royal castles, leaving everywhere tokens of his munificence. He observed that the fleet stationed at Dover was commanded by Normans; that Norman soldiers garrisoned the castle of Canterbury; that the clergy spoke Norman French; and that almost all the officers of the army used the same language.

Meanwhile Godwin, who had taken refuge in Flanders, was preparing for his return. In 1052, he sailed up the Thames to London, where he was speedily joined by such numbers, that the king, after a little delay, was compelled to negotiate with his detested father-in-law. The men of foreign birth, perceiving their danger, immediately hastened out of the country, and the witenagemot restored the earl to all his honours and possessions, his daughter Edith being at the same time removed from her monastic prison to her husband's court. He did not long survive his victory and the re-establishment of Saxon supremacy. While sitting at the king's table at Windsor, he was attacked with apoplexy, and died three days afterwards, leaving to Harold, the eldest and most accomplished of his sons, all his territories and appointments, and influence more extensive than his own.

The feeble Edward, after bestowing riches and dignities on Harold, began to fear that he had given too much power to a subject: and as he did not himself possess energy enough to oppose openly whatever the son of Godwin might attempt, he feared he could counterbalance one power by another, without reflecting that the most skilful or ambitious of the two antagonists would not fail to crush his adversary, and become still more formidable. This was precisely what happened. When Harold had succeeded to the government of Wessex, the king required that some territory which Harold had governed during his father's life should be given to Aylmer, the son of Earl Leofric. This request irritated the powerful Earl of Wessex, who accused Aylmer of treason before the witenagemot, and secured his imprisonment. A year later into Wales, where he raised a considerable force among the subjects of his father-in-law King Griffith, with which he attacked Harford and ravaged the country: and although induced by Harold, he still seemed inclined to desert, that negotiation was entered into, by which he was secured in his former possessions and domains. A year, however, he was driven into exile, and a Danish army, sent to him by the Irish and Welsh, he defeated in 1055. He left the king's daughter Edith, who received her possessions and dignities as usual.

Edith's marriage was never consummated, so the union of the two kingdoms was not effected. Harold, however, was crowned king in 1066, and he died in 1066, leaving the kingdom to his son Godwin, who was crowned king in 1066.

The conquered mountaineers agreed to pay tribute, and a law was enacted that every Welshman found in arms to the east of Offa's Dyke, should lose his right hand.

9. Harold had at length so far gained Edward's friendship and confidence, that the monarch consulted him in every thing, not excepting even his domestic affairs. Yet the king felt convinced that the earl was nourishing the hope of ascending the throne, and therefore resolved to visit Rome, after the example of his predecessors, Canute and Ethelwulf, for the purpose of consulting with the pope. But the witenagemot resolutely opposed his undertaking a journey that might expose the nation to the dangers of a disputed succession, and recalled to his recollection his nephew and namesake Edward, the eldest of Edmund Ironside's sons, then living in exile in Hungary. This prince was the nearest heir to the crown, and an embassy was accordingly sent to invite him to return. Edward immediately came to England with his wife Agatha, daughter of the Emperor Henry III., and his children, Edgar, surnamed the Atheling, Margaret, and Christina. But he had scarcely taken possession of the palace prepared for him in London before he fell ill and died.

Edgar was now the only obstacle between Harold and the throne, when the latter determined to visit Duke William of Normandy, to obtain the release of his brother Walnoth and his nephew Haco, the two hostages for the Godwin family, whom Edward had committed to the duke's custody. William immediately took advantage of the powerful earl's presence in his dominions to make known his own designs on the throne of England, and to exact from him a promise, confirmed by a solemn oath, that he would assist him in obtaining the crown. Harold, being completely in the duke's power, was obliged to comply, and was then allowed to depart, loaded with magnificent presents.

Edward, feeling that his end was drawing near, is said by some authorities to have bequeathed his kingdom to William of Normandy; while, according to others, he named Harold as his successor. He died on the 5th of January 1066, and was interred with great pomp and solemnity in Westminster Abbey, which he had lived just long enough to complete. He was about sixty-five years old, and had filled the throne of England nearly twenty-four years. He was the last prince of the Saxon race who governed England, and merits great praise for the care he bestowed on the just administration of

the laws. He compiled a code, selected from those of Ethelbert, Ina, and Alfred, and adapted it to the manners and customs of his day. During his reign, the people enjoyed a large share of peace and prosperity; and though he did not display any brilliant qualities, he devoted himself entirely to the welfare and happiness of his subjects. His principal amusement was the chase; and the wood that surrounded his castle of Borstall in Buckinghamshire was his favourite resort. He avoided all ostentation, and by well-regulated economy acquired more wealth than any of his predecessors. The people felt the greatest attachment to him, both on account of his Saxon descent and his many estimable qualities; and long afterwards, when groaning under the despotism of their Norman rulers, his death was deplored as a public calamity, and he was fondly remembered as the "good King Edward."

10. HAROLD was proclaimed king by an assembly of nobles and citizens of London, and solemnly crowned by Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, on the day of Edward's funeral. The legitimate heir to the throne was the young Edgar Atheling; but his extreme youth would have made a regency necessary, and his claim, if ever mentioned, was instantly abandoned.

The beginning of the new reign was marked by a complete return to those national usages which had been abandoned under the former sovereign; and in the royal charters, the ancient Saxon signature displaced the hanging Norman seals. But Harold did not carry his reformation so far as to drive away the men of foreign birth who occupied the public stations throughout the country. They continued to enjoy all their civil rights; and ungratefully returned this generous conduct by intriguing in behalf of the Duke of Normandy.

No sooner had William heard of Edward's decease, and of Harold's quiet accession, than he determined to assert his claims to the crown of England. He accordingly convoked his parliament or assembly at Lillebonne, to acquaint them with his designs, and to request their assistance; but the members hesitated for a long time, being unwilling to leave their own country on an enterprise involving so great danger and uncertainty. The Norman lords, however, were unanimous in their opinion that the island should be invaded; and by holding out dazzling prospects of gain and glory, William at length succeeded in removing the scruples of the wavering commoners. Preparations on a great scale were then made

for the expedition, and messengers sent to solicit the aid of the King of France and the benediction of the pope. The former was refused, but the latter was granted, and the blessing alone determined numbers to take part in the invasion. The rumour of William's enterprise soon spread far and wide, and the Counts of Flanders and Boulogne, with a numerous company of barons, crowded round his standard. Emulation excited the Normans not to remain in the background, and it soon became a matter of rivalry who should supply the greatest number of vessels and men-at-arms for the conquest of England, where treasures, estates, and dignities were to be the portion of the conquerors. Such was the activity displayed, that William soon beheld at his disposal a fleet of 3000 ships and open boats, in which he embarked about 60,000 chosen men; and on the 28th of September 1066, he landed without opposition at a place named Bulverhithe, between Pevensey and Hastings, on the coast of Sussex.

11. In the meantime, Harold was threatened with a more immediate danger than that from Normandy. Tostig, his unnatural brother, who had been expelled from Northumberland on account of his tyranny, had repaired to the court of Norway, where he prevailed on Harold Hadrada to invade England. Early in autumn the Norwegian monarch set sail with a fleet of 200 war-ships, and twice as many vessels of inferior size, laden with all kinds of warlike stores. He sailed up the Humber and captured York; but Harold immediately attacked him, and in the battle of Stamford Bridge most of the invaders perished, and the fleet became the prize of the conqueror.

While Harold was recruiting his exhausted troops at York, he was informed of William's landing in Sussex, and immediately hastened towards London, pressing forward his soldiers with the utmost speed. On the 13th of October, he came in sight of the invading army, and having chosen a favourable position on a declivity named Senlac, nine miles from Hastings, entrenched his camp and waited for the attack. The Normans were posted on the opposite hill, which they descended about nine in the morning of the 14th, and crossing the intervening space, began to ascend that on which the English were stationed. Before closing with their opponents, they raised the shout of "*Dieu aide!* God is our help!" and were answered by Harold's troops with that of "Christ's rood—the holy rood!" or cross. The attack was commenced by the Norman

two brothers, almost all the nobility of the south of England had died where they fought; and though the total loss of the vanquished is unknown, it cannot reasonably be estimated at less than that of the victors. The body of Harold was delivered to his mother, and deposited by her in the church of Waltham.

As we have now reached the end of the Anglo-Saxon period of English history, it may be well to look back upon the progress made by the nation between the Saxon and the Norman invasions. It is doubted how far the feudal system was said to have been adopted before the Conquest. If the Normans did not entirely introduce it into England, they at least brought it to perfection; but it must not be forgotten, that the Saxons before them had established a regular form of government, in which principles are to be found that have been far more valuable to the liberty and happiness of the nation than those of feudalism.

In the royal family there were but two classes, thanes and knights, i. e. gentry and inferior people. The conquered Britons were little better than slaves, attached like serfs to the estates of their masters. The great council, or witenagemot, of the nation, was the witenagemot, or assembly of wise men. It was composed of prelates, abbots, bishops, and aldermen of shires; but there was nothing resembling the modern representative system. For the purpose of administering justice, England was divided into hundreds, and tithings: the county-court was held once in the course of the year, and its presidents were the bishop and the alderman, or the sheriff. Unless a man was denied in this court, there lay no appeal to the king's court. The law of trial by jury and frank pledge or responsibility has been spoken of in connexion with the reign of King Alfred.

While Harold was in the north, the country was not without learning—indeed for some time the peaceful Saxon churchmen were a more civilized and cultivated class than the half military ecclesiastics whom the Normans thrust among them. Rich libraries existed at Canterbury, in the monastery of Wearmouth, and particularly at Winchester, in which were to be found nearly all the Greek and Latin writers illustrious in profane and sacred literature. Four names will suffice to show the literary glory of England under the dominion of its Saxon conquerors: Alfred, the learned and the king; Aldhelm, abbot of Malmesbury, and afterwards

bishop of Sherburn, long celebrated for his poetry; Bede, whom a council of French bishops, held at Aix-la-Chapelle a hundred years after his death, denominated the *venerable and admirable doctor*; and Alcuin, who so effectually aided Charlemagne in establishing schools throughout his empire, and in regenerating polite learning, at that period almost extinct.

13. The history of the Anglo-Saxon coinage is very obscure; there appear to have been two kinds of money—money of account and coins. To the former belonged the pound, equivalent to £2, 16s. 3d. of our sterling money; the greater and smaller shilling, respectively valued at fourteen pence and eleven pence farthing: to the latter belonged the penny, half-penny, and farthing, severally worth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ d., 2d., and $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. The only copper coin was the styca, in value about one-third of a farthing. Foreign coins circulated extensively among the Anglo-Saxons, particularly the gold besants, equal in value to forty pennies.

The manners of the Anglo-Saxons were rude and semi-barbarous. The higher classes sat at a round table, to which none of inferior degree were admitted. A sort of dais was placed over their heads, with curtains falling from its sides. Slaves waited upon them kneeling, and with a short dagger or dirk each guest cut off a portion from the food presented to him. Their feasts generally ended in drunken revelry; and even the clergy were not free from excess in their cups. The music of the Anglo-Saxons was as rude as the instruments they employed, which consisted of straight or curved horns, copper vessels beaten with little sticks, and a five-stringed harp.

It is still questioned whether there are any actual remains of Saxon architecture in existence. Westminster Abbey, erected by Edward the Confessor, was destroyed and rebuilt in the thirteenth century. Some edifices, such as the curious tower of Earl's Barton in Northamptonshire, have been supposed to be Saxon, because they are unlike any specimens of the later schools of architecture. They are generally built with small rough stones, intended to be plastered on the outside; but they have hewn stone at the corners, and at the sides of the doors and windows, as well as projecting bands of cut stone at certain distances. But it has not yet been satisfactorily proved that even these buildings are Saxon.

Although agriculture declined under the early Saxon rule, it was still far superior to the mode pursued by the conquerors

in their own country. The British farms were small, but regularly divided into meadow, arable, pasture, and woodland. The fields were usually enclosed; gardens and orchards were cultivated in favourable spots; and roads and paths united the large towns and scattered villages. Wheaten bread was not in general use; and when the corn crop failed, its substitutes were colewort and green pulse. The staple article of food was swine's flesh: beef and mutton were dainties; and sea and river fish were largely consumed. The garments of the Anglo-Saxons were linen and woollen: the fleece was spun in winter by the females of every family, whatever might be their rank; and in the term *spinster*, applied to an unmarried woman, the trace of this custom still remains. The Saxon ladies were very skilful with their needles, particularly in embroidery and ornamental work, probably not unlike those of which a noble specimen still remains in the celebrated Bayeux tapestry, whereon the whole events of the Norman conquest are curiously and minutely represented in a succession of pictures in needlework. The chaplain of William the Conqueror has left us an interesting account of the wealth of England at the time of the invasion: "That land abounds more than Normandy in the precious metals. If in fertility it may be termed the granary of Ceres, in riches it should be called the treasury of Arabia. The English women excel in the use of the needle, and in embroidering in gold: the men in every species of elegant workmanship. Moreover the best artists of Germany live amongst them; and merchants, who repair to distant countries, import the most valuable articles of foreign manufacture unknown in Normandy."

EXERCISES.

1. Describe the first acts of Canute. Whose daughter became wife of Malcolm king of Scotland? How did Canute avert the danger threatening him in Normandy?

2. How did Canute reward his warriors? What was the effect of his arrangement? Describe the manner in which he afterwards found it expedient to treat his followers. Describe his regulations. Relate the anecdote of his killing a soldier.

3. What was the conduct of Canute when his throne was peaceably established? How did he improve the condition of the natives? Mention his ecclesiastical endowments. What warlike operations did he carry on? Mention a remarkable occurrence showing his religious zeal.

4. How was the succession settled on the death of Canute? Who attempted to obtain the throne? Who espoused the cause of Hardicanute? Who was the Alfred who came from Normandy? What relation had Queen Emma to him and to Hardicanute? Describe Alfred's fate.

5. What difficulties did Harold encounter at his coronation? By whom was he succeeded? Describe an incident connected with Earl Godwin.

What proceedings took place at Worcester in consequence of Hardicanute's exactions? How did the line of Danish monarchs become extinct?

6. Whose son was Edward the Confessor? Whose daughter did he marry? Describe the character of his government. What was the first act of his administration? Give an account of the manner in which the Normans first got a footing in the country, and the effect they produced.

7. Who headed the party hostile to the Normans? Describe an incident connected with this hostility. What was the issue of the combat between the king and Earl Godwin? What was the fate of Godwin and his family?

8. Describe a visit to England by William the Norman in Edward's reign. Under what circumstances did Earl Godwin return? Whose son was Harold? Who was raised to power by Edward for the purpose of opposing Harold? What are the chief circumstances in the history of Algar?

9. What journey did Edward propose to undertake, and what was its object? Why were the people opposed to the king's leaving the country? To whom did William of Normandy communicate his designs on the throne of England? When did Edward die, and how long had he reigned? Give some account of the influence of his reign over the people.

10. Who became Edward's successor? Who was the legitimate heir to the crown? What circumstances marked the commencement of Harold's reign? What was the conduct of William of Normandy? What means did he employ to induce the Norman lords to join him in his enterprise?

11. What was the danger with which Harold was threatened during William's preparations against England? In what battle were the invaders defeated? In what part of England did William land? Describe the leading features of the battle of Hastings. What was the result of the battle?

12. To what extent had the feudal system taken root among the Saxons before the Norman conquest? Describe generally the condition of society among them. How was the witenagemot constituted? Mention the names of some of the most distinguished men of the Saxon period.

13. What do we know about the money of the Saxons? Mention some peculiarities of their manners. What is known of Anglo-Saxon architecture? What mode of agriculture did they practise? How were the females employed?

CHAPTER VI.

EARLY HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

Strathclyde Britons—The Highlands—The Picts and Scots—England and Scotland before the Norman Conquest—Diffusion of the Saxon Race through Scotland—The Danes—Macbeth—Conversion of Scotland to Christianity—St Columba.

1. THE Romans were so short a time masters of any considerable part of Scotland, that they could have left but few traces of their civilisation in the manners of the people. A portion, however, of those who had been longest under their sway, and who lived chiefly in the Roman province south of Antonine's Wall, held themselves as a separate kingdom from the rest of the country. They appear to have been a Celtic people of the original British race. The boundary of their kingdom,

which was called Strathclyde, is not accurately known, but it is supposed to have included most of the western counties to the south of the river Clyde. Everything connected with even the greatest kings and heroes of this early period is doubtful; and some historians maintain that King Arthur, who, according to an ancient tradition, sleeps in fairy land, and will waken some day as emperor of Britain, was the king of these Strathclyde Britons. Northward of Strathclyde, we find that the same people who were spoken of by Tacitus as the Caledonians, were called Picts. There have been great antiquarian disputes whether these Picts were of Celtic race like the Irish and Highlanders, or of Gothic race like the English and Lowland Scots. And where so much learning has been displayed on both sides, it would not be safe to take a part. It would appear pretty certain, however, that, from a very early period, the inhabitants of all the east coast of Scotland, and indeed of nearly every part of the country except the present Highlands, were Goths. Not only in the southern counties, such as Ayr or Peebles, but in the lowlands of Aberdeenshire and Morayshire, the people are as purely Gothic in their origin as the Anglo-Saxons of England.

2. THE HIGHLANDS.—The first time that we find the name of Scotland given to North Britain is the year 934. It is a curious fact that before that time the Irish were called Scots, and it would appear that a few of these people, crossing over from their native island to Caledonia, transferred the name of their original nation to their new place of abode, which has ever since been known as Scotland.

These Irish Scots settled on the west coast of Scotland in considerable numbers about the year 360. It is stated that they were driven back to Ireland about the year 450, by the King of the Picts, Drust "of the hundred battles;" but this is not likely, as they are found to have been very numerous shortly after the year 500, when they chiefly inhabited Argyll, and were called Dalryads. They soon spread themselves over the islands on the west coast and the great mountain district commonly called the Highlands of Scotland, where they founded the race so different from the other inhabitants of Great Britain, called Highlanders or "The Gael."

3. THE PICTS AND SCOTS.—It was usual for the southern Britons to complain that the ravages from which they sought relief at the hands of the Saxons were inflicted on them by the Picts and the Scots; but perhaps they did not very accu-

rately distinguish between their enemies, farther than to know that they came from the north. In the year 843, it is said that the whole of Scotland beyond the Forth and Clyde was reduced under the dominion of one monarch, called Kenneth MacAlpin. Wonderful stories are told of this event. It is related that Kenneth, who was king of the Scots, routed the Picts, gaining seven battles against them in one day, and that he concluded by putting the whole Pictish people to death except an old man and his son. It would appear that the reason why these two were spared was that the king desired to extract from them a secret which the Picts had preserved with great jealousy—namely, how to brew heather ale. The father, as the story goes, said he would tell the secret if his son were put to death. This was an odd request; but the Scots would do anything to know how to make the liquor they desired so much, and they complied. When his son was slain, the old man heroically leaped up, and said, now the secret should never be known—he was afraid that his son would be weak enough to tell it, and therefore he had tempted them to put him out of the way. It needs scarcely be said, that the old man himself was immediately slain. If this story of the extermination of the Picts were true, it would be unnecessary to inquire whether they were Goths or Celts. But the eminent antiquary Mr Pinkerton, far from believing even in the victory of the Scots, maintains the truth to have been precisely the reverse, and that they were the conquered party. However this may have been, it is certain that the Celtic Scots from Ireland, a century or two later, when we have authentic records, had no influence beyond the range of the present Highlands, and that the country called the Lowlands of Scotland was entirely occupied by a Gothic people.

Besides the Picts, the Scots, and the Strathclyde Britons, a part of Scotland was occupied by the Saxon kingdom of Northumbria, which extended along the south-east of Scotland as far as the Frith of Forth. When Edwin was bretwalda of the Saxon kingdoms, about the year 620, he ruled over Northumbria as a kingdom of the heptarchy, and Edwinsburgh or Edinburgh, afterwards the capital of Scotland, is said to have been named from him.

4. The young reader should be cautioned against supposing that before the Norman conquest England and Scotland were two compact nations, ever ready to go to war with each other, as they were afterwards. The people in Yorkshire and Lan-

cashire were not more the enemies of the people of Scotland than of their neighbours on the other side in Kent or Essex. All through the island, tribes and districts were combining with each other, or separating according to circumstances. Sometimes the people north of the Tweed were, as we have found them, at war with those of the south. At other times nearly the whole of Scotland was united with England under one king. This was not by England's subjecting Scotland, but by a politic and able monarch combining together different states. The Saxons of England gradually diffused themselves through Scotland before the Norman conquest, but after that they came in great crowds. Edgar the Atheling found a refuge in Scotland, and his sister Margaret was married to King Malcolm. This naturally favoured the connexion of the Saxons with the northern kingdom, where they found a refuge from the tyranny of the Normans. From that time onwards the kings of England felt a jealousy and dislike to Scotland as the head-quarters of the Saxons; but this feeling was not participated in by the people, who continued to be on a friendly footing with the kindred race in Scotland until the ambitious wars of the Edwards made the two nations each other's bitterest enemies for four hundred years.

Scotland, like England and Ireland, was long subject to the incursions of the Danes and other northern tribes, who settled on many parts of the coast, and served to increase the preponderance of the Gothic population. Before the year 900, the King of Norway had taken possession of Orkney and Shetland, and his empire subsequently spread over Caithness and Sutherland.

5. MACBETH.—To speak of the early kings of Scotland individually would be to give little more than a catalogue of unpronounceable names—such as Wrgust, Talorgan, Wrad, Feredesh, and Domhnall. Macbeth, who ascended the throne in 1037, has been distinguished from the crowd, and made renowned all over the world by the genius of Shakspeare. It is said that, when returning from a victory which he had gained for his master Duncan, having to cross a wild heath in a stormy day, three witches made their appearance. In the words of the poet they are thus described by Banquo who attended him :—

What are these,
So wither'd, and so wild in their attire,
That look not like the inhabitants o' the earth,

And yet are on't? Live you? or are you aught
That man may question? You seem to understand me,
By each at once her choppy finger laying
Upon her skinny lips.

These mysterious beings hailed Macbeth as Thane of Cawdor and Thane of Glamis, and then as him who should be king hereafter. The first and second assurances were immediately confirmed. This, according to the tradition, set Macbeth's mind to cogitate how the third might also come to pass. Driven on by his ambition, his reflections at last became familiar with guilt; and when the unsuspecting Duncan came to visit him in his castle, Macbeth, at the instigation of his wife, stole to the king's chamber and slew him. Very little of this romance is true, though, besides being represented in the play, it is recorded in the chronicles. That was an age of violence, when few chiefs or kings died a natural death. At the same time, there was no fixed law of succession, and the strongest generally had the best of every dispute. Macbeth's wife, whose name was Gruach, had some claim to the crown, and she is said to have suffered injustice from Duncan. Such circumstances were then too common a cause of violence, and there is reason to believe that Macbeth slew Duncan rather in open war than by secret assassination. Macbeth was a pious monarch. He went on a pilgrimage to Rome; and he made the earliest grant to the church of which there is any authentic record in Scotland. Malcolm, the son of the slain Duncan, assisted by troops from England, made war on Macbeth, who fled before him northwards, and was killed at Lumphanan in Aberdeenshire, where a gray cairn of stones on the side of a bleak hill, supposed to cover his body, is still called by the country people Cairn Beth.

6. CONVERSION.—The conversion of Scotland to Christianity commenced about the year 565, when St Columba, one of the many learned and pious teachers of Christianity in Ireland, landed on the western shore. He planted in Scotland a branch of the Irish Church, of which an account is given in the next chapter. From this source there were dispersed throughout Scotland a number of religious teachers called Culdees. What these were has been the subject of fierce dispute, some maintaining that they resembled the Presbyterian clergy of the present day, while others affirm with no less obstinacy that they were a monastic order. It is certain that they brought with them from Ireland customs

which were not in accordance with those of the Romish Church; and thus, as the papal influence subsequently made progress in Scotland, the Culdees were gradually extinguished. On the small island of Iona, off the western coast of Scotland, Columba founded a monastery, which received additions in after-ages, and whose ruins are still visited with interest. This remote spot, now so desolate and lonely, was once the stronghold of Christianity and learning in Scotland, and pious men prayed and studied there, when the rest of the country was plunged in barbarism. Columba was the instructor of the Picts as well as of the Scots. He had to employ an interpreter when he addressed the Picts, and this is one reason for presuming that they were a Gothic people, and not Celtic like the Scots their neighbours.

EXERCISES.

1. What traces did the Romans leave behind them in Scotland? What was the district called which retained their manners? What tribes inhabited the rest of Scotland? Describe the disputes about them.
2. What people were of old called Septs? Whence did the Highlanders pass into Scotland? What were they anciently called?
3. What names were given to the inhabitants of Scotland who attacked the southern Britons? Give some account of what has been said about the Picts and Scots. What Saxon kingdom was within the bounds of Scotland?
4. What mistake are people liable to make about the early intercourse of England and Scotland? What Saxon prince found refuge in Scotland? What first made the two countries hostile? What authority did the King of Norway obtain in the north?
5. Would it be of use to go over the names of all the old kings of Scotland? How did Macbeth's name obtain celebrity? Is all true that has been said of him? State some facts really known about him.
6. Who first converted the inhabitants of Scotland? Whence did he come? Describe the differences of opinion about his followers. Where was his church?

CHAPTER VII.

EARLY HISTORY OF IRELAND.

Antiquity of the Irish Race—Ossian—Christianity introduced—Saint Patrick—Primitive Irish Church—Learning—John Scotus—Danish Invasions—Brian Boru—Malachi of the Golden Collar.

1. THE early historians have told such preposterous tales about the antiquity of the Irish race of kings, that many persons are unwilling to believe the older portions of the history

of Ireland, however well authenticated. It is beyond doubt, however, that in some respects its primitive history is more clearly known than that of either England or Scotland. When a nation once begins to grow civilized, peace and tranquillity only are required to enable it to advance rapidly. It is quite sufficient, therefore, to account for the progress which A.D. } the Irish made before the incursions of the Danes, to
800. } remember that there was probably but one race of people in that island; while in England and Scotland there were Britons, Romans, Picts, Irish, Saxons, and Danes, all occasionally making war against each other. From so early a period, it is said, as the fourth century, heroes became celebrated in the Celtic poetry. About eighty years ago, the poems of Ossian were published in English by Mr M'Pherson, as being a translation of the productions of a Highland bard. There is no doubt that some ballads and other legends about great heroes, partly real persons, but in a great measure fictitious, were procured in the Gaelic language; but the Highlanders brought them over when they passed from Ireland into Scotland, and the persons celebrated in them, so far as they are real, were Irish. The principal hero is called Fingal in Ossian's Poems; but in the Irish authorities he is called Fin Maccoull, and they give an account of him which reminds us more of a freebooter than a king.

2. CHRISTIANITY—ST PATRICK.—We must attribute the dawn of civilisation in Ireland to the introduction of Christianity, though the Irish historians would fain carry it much farther back. St Patrick, the first successful missionary to Ireland, is said to have been born in Scotland, of parents who lived under the Roman government, and were partly of British, partly of Roman descent. The place of his birth is supposed to have been Kilpatrick, near the mouth of the Clyde; but according to other accounts, he was born in Bretagne or Brittany, in France. He was early taken prisoner by one of the followers of Nial of the Nine Hostages, an Irish king who plundered the parts of Britain bordering on the sea. Patrick, thus becoming a slave, was devoted to the herding of cattle on the lonely hills, but after six years of servitude he was released and permitted to return to his native country, having during his captivity been converted to the faith of Christ. Feeling an intense desire to become a missionary of the gospel he passed into France to prepare himself for that office. He used to relate in after-life, that the memory of

desolate heathen Ireland haunted him in his dreams, in which he heard a voice sounding from the distant mountains, and saying: "We entreat thee, holy youth, to come and walk still among us." He was upwards of forty years old before he returned to Ireland. Palladius had been sent on a mission to convert that people, but he had failed in the attempt, and St Patrick, who was appointed to succeed to him, landed on the shores of Ireland about the year 432. It is said, that being at first mistaken for a sea-robber, his arrival created uneasiness and alarm; but this was soon dissipated by his meek and peaceful demeanour. Among the other legends referring to his bold endeavours to propagate the gospel, we are told that when the great heathen rites of the nation were to be performed at the hall of Tara, he announced that he would then and there celebrate the Christian solemnities of Easter. It was a rule that no fire should be seen until the great beltane flame blazed up from the hall of Tara. In the meantime, St Patrick, according to old practice in the Church, lit his paschal fire. This incensed the king and the priests; and when the former asked what fire that was, a Druid is said to have replied, "This fire, which has now been kindled before our eyes, unless extinguished this very night, will never be extinguished through all time; it will tower above all our ancient flames, and he who lights it will ere long scatter your kingdom:" The secret of St Patrick's success appears to have been, that while he was bold he was likewise cautious; he did not so much denounce the superstitions of the heathen, as show to them the superior truth and virtue of Christianity. He accommodated his teaching, so far as he conscientiously could, to the rites and ceremonies of their former worship, and thus speedily, after the incident above mentioned, he preached among the Druids in that very heathen temple of Tara.

3. PRIMITIVE IRISH CHURCH.—It was very likely that the forms of worship and church-government established in so remote a district would not remain in exact conformity with those in countries nearer to the see of Rome. It thus happened that when Christianity, as propagated from Ireland through Scotland, met there with Christianity as it had been taught from England, there were found to be considerable differences between them, and particularly one about the proper time of celebrating Easter. These differences were the cause of many bitter disputes. The English church pleaded that it followed the example of Rome; but the Irish churchmen

maintained that they had still better authority for their own practice, since they had received it directly from the apostles, who had been the first converters of Ireland. There is no good reason, however, for believing that the Irish were generally converted before the time of St Patrick. Yet it is a curious circumstance, that the country, which has been of late so celebrated for its Romanism, showed in those early times considerable opposition to the Papal Church; and so simple was its ecclesiastical establishment, that some affirm it had no bishops, but nearly resembled the Presbyterian Church of Scotland at this day. The early popes, indeed, showed a jealous dislike of Ireland, and it was under papal authority that the country was subsequently invaded by the English.

LEARNING.—Along with Christianity, St Patrick, or some of his immediate followers, made the Irish acquainted with letters. An alphabet was framed, derived from the Roman, but rather ruder in form, and not quite in the same order, known as the Irish alphabet. In this alphabet, and in the Celtic tongue, there are Irish books of great antiquity. Many of these manuscripts show considerable acquaintance with the classic works of Rome, and even with those of Greece. Although the same Celtic language is spoken in the Highlands, yet no old manuscripts have been preserved in that part of the empire, and the reason probably is, that as Ireland was the principal habitation of the race, the learned men remained there, and did not emigrate to the colony formed in Scotland. Notwithstanding the many extravagant boasts on the subject, there is no doubt that among the Irish clergy there was much learning so early as the year 800, and for two centuries after it. The celebrated John Scotus, commonly called Erigena, who flourished in France in the middle of the ninth century, is believed, on good ground, to have been an Irishman; and there are chronicles of the early Irish history still in existence, which must have been compiled from manuscripts of far greater date, probably as remote as the age of St Patrick.

4. DANISH INVASIONS.—It was about the year 800 that the Danes began to invade Ireland, and they appear to have made rapid progress towards a complete conquest of the island; for soon afterwards there occurs a period of thirty years during which it was subjected to their ravages and oppressions. Mr Moore says: "There is not a single spot of renown in the ecclesiastical history of our country, not one of those numer-

ous religious foundations, the seats and monuments of the early piety of her sons, that was not frequently during this period made the scene of flagrant and brutal excesses. The repeated destruction by fire of the same monasteries and churches may naturally be accounted for by the material of these structures having been wood. But as few things of any value could have survived such conflagrations, the mere wantonness of barbarity alone could have tempted them so often to repeat the outrage.

BRIAN BORU.—Like every other nation that has been thus invaded, the Irish preserve the name and deeds of a great liberator. About the middle of the tenth century, there arose a young hero of princely origin, since renowned as King **A.D. } Brian Boru, who, while still a youth, encountered the**
980. } Danes in a battle in which 3000 of them were slaugh-
tered. Another hero, Malachi of the Golden Collar, so named from a celebrated trophy which he won from the Danes, had a long rivalry and many battles with Brian for the sovereignty **A.D. } of Ireland. In this contest Brian was successful, and**
1001. } he was at last crowned at Tara as king of the whole island. It is thus that, at the close of a thousand years from the Christian era, Ireland saw herself an independent state under one ruler,—a position which the country had never previously enjoyed within the period of authentic records, and which it held for a short period only. While praying in his **A.D. } tent, Brian was assassinated by the leader of a defeated**
1014. } army of Danes.

EXERCISES.

1. Why have people been induced to doubt the early history of Ireland? State the reasons why the inhabitants of that island had a better opportunity of being civilized than those of Britain. What is known about the heroes of Ossian's Poems?

2. Who was the first successful missionary to Ireland? Give some incidents in the life of St Patrick. When did he begin to teach Christianity? Who were incensed at his proceedings? How did he obtain his great influence?

3. Describe some peculiarities about the early Irish Church which distinguished it from that of England. What is remarkable about Catholicism in Ireland? What did St Patrick introduce besides Christianity? What do we know about early Irish literature? Give the name of a celebrated Irishman.

4. What race invaded Ireland? What is said of the ravages of the Danes. What prince reigned as sole king of Ireland? When and how was he slain?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE DIFFERENT RACES AND THEIR LANGUAGES.

Early Inhabitants of the British Isles—Celts and Goths—Antiquity of the English Language—Various Dialects of Great Britain—Norman French—Greek and Latin—Saxon—Saxon Names of Persons and Places—Celtic Names—Superiority of the Gothic over the Celtic Race.

1. It will now be proper to give a general account of the different tribes by which the British islands were peopled. The whole population may be considered as divided into two great races, the one Celtic and the other Gothic (Teutonic) or German. A Celtic race appears at one time to have inhabited every portion of the British isles, for even in districts where there have been no Celts for more than a thousand years, the names of places are still in the Celtic tongue. The two tribes of people, though they have continued so long to reside in the same locality, subject to the same laws, are extremely unlike each other. The Gothic race are generally of large full make and fair complexions, while the Celts are thin, graceful, and swarthy. Thus, notwithstanding the mixture which the races have undergone by intermarriage, a traveller crossing the Highland line in Scotland may observe that the people become all at once changed in character, and that in the Celtic Highlanders he finds himself among a people as distinct from the Lowlanders in appearance, language, and customs, as if they lived ten thousand miles away from them. We do not know very well what race predominated at the time of the Roman invasion. Tacitus tells us that the Caledonians, meaning in general the inhabitants of the northern part of the island, were men of large limbs, light complexions, and reddish hair, while those nearest to the coast of Gaul were small and swarthy. This description, which he probably derived from his father-in-law Agricola, would lead to the conclusion that nearly all Scotland was at that time inhabited by races of Gothic origin, who had come over from Scandinavia, while, at all events, the southern parts of England were inhabited by Gallic Celts, and the whole of Ireland was peopled by a Celtic race. Subsequently, the Saxons and other Gothic tribes passed into England, and became so far preponderant over the Celts, that their language was superseded by the

Anglo-Saxon, except in the principality of Wales and some other parts of the west, where the Celtic continued to preponderate. At the same time an infusion of the Celtic tribes was in progress in another part of the island. There were probably some people of this race in Scotland at the time of the Roman invasions; but afterwards large bodies came over from Ireland, and occupied the western coast. This happened to be the most sterile and mountainous portion of the country. On the plains the people of Gothic race, who were more industrious than their neighbours, naturally pressed them from the more valuable lands towards the mountains, and thus the Celtic people of Scotland, whether original inhabitants of the country, or immigrants from Ireland, became concentrated in what is called "The Highlands" of Scotland.

2. The dispute whether the Picts were of Gothic or Celtic origin has already been referred to. Whatever they were, it is certain that the Lowlanders of Scotland spoke a Gothic dialect from a very early period, and that their language was indeed almost the same as that of the English—at least the distinction was not greater than between York and Somerset, or between Peebles and Forfar. The great difference between the English and the Scottish tongue did not arise until after the nations were set at enmity, as we shall find, by the tyranny of Edward I. Indeed, there was a time when the Scots may be said to have spoken better English than the English themselves. This was after the Norman conquest, when a mixture of French was infused into the conversation and literature of the higher orders of England, while the Scots preserved a purer Gothic speech. A ballad made in Scotland about the year 1290, when the wars with England had begun, is very good English, and is perhaps the oldest specimen of that kind of composition in our language. It represents the misery of the country at the time of the death of Alexander the Third; and if the spelling be slightly altered from what it is in the work of the old annalist Andrew Wyntoun, it will be very easily understood at the present day.

When Alexander our king was dead,
That Scotland led in love and lee,
Away was sons of ale and bread,
Of wine and wax, of gaming and glee:
Our gold was changed into lead.
Christ, born into virginity,
Succour Scotland and remede,
That stad is in perplexity.

The various adventurers who came from the north, some of them through the Orkneys and Sutherlandshire, others arriving at various points southward along the east coast, would thus find a people of kindred tongue, with whom they could easily converse and associate. They have left, however, some traces in the dialects of different districts, and there are many words to this day used in parts of Scotland, which are not employed in England, but may be heard in Germany or Denmark. Thus, in the north of Scotland, the plural of *eye* is *eene*, and so it is in Denmark. *Schwer*, which is the German for heavy or ponderous, is pronounced *sweer* in Scotland, and has a like meaning. *Luft* is German for the sky, and in Scotland it is called the *lift*. The Germans use *jammern*, pronounced *yammern*, meaning to bewail, and in Scotland they sometimes say when a discontented person frets and grumbles, that he is *yammerin'*. Thus with some variations the same Gothic tongue was spoken throughout the whole island, except in Cornwall, Wales, part of Cumberland and Northumberland, and a small district in Scotland, where the ancient British continued to be the language, and the Highlands of Scotland, where the Irish Gaelic was spoken.

3. In Ireland there appears to have been a purely Celtic population until the incursions of the Danes, who must have infused a considerable quantity of Gothic blood throughout a portion of Ireland, especially in the neighbourhood of Dublin, which was the Danish capital of the country. With the English conquest a number of Saxons and a few Normans were brought into the island. In the forfeitures in Queen Elizabeth's reign, and at subsequent periods down to the reign of Queen Anne, a large number of English and Scottish settlers were established in Ireland; so that the people of Gothic descent are now dispersed over a considerable part of the country, and the Celtic tongue is now the language of a portion only of the uneducated peasantry. Irish antiquarians, however, study this language, and they have naturally a respect for it, from its great antiquity, and the number of ancient annals which have been written in it.

4. A considerable alteration was made in the language of a portion of the people by the Norman conquest. The Normans were a Gothic race like the Saxons, but having been settled in a part of France for about a century before they came to England, they had learned the French language, and their own had fallen into disuse. When they reached this country,

they formed the court and the aristocracy, and thus their method of speaking became the fashionable tongue. It was in Norman French that all the great people spoke, and in this language the laws were written and the pleadings conducted in the courts. The Saxon tongue has gradually overcome it, and now forms the staple of the conversation and literature of the country; but there are still several curious relics of the use of the Norman. Thus, the form in which the royal assent is given to a bill after it has passed through Parliament is in the words, *la reine le veut*, "the queen wills it so." To descend to smaller formalities, some public officers, when making proclamations, begin by saying "Oh yes," three times. This is a corruption of the French, *ouiez*, "listen." Our terms of cookery are a relic of the Norman language, showing how it was used by the great at their entertainments, while the common people spoke in Saxon. Thus, when the flesh of the ox is produced at table, it is called *beef*, from the French *bœuf*, an ox. The pig, hog, or sow, while it is in the sty, and in charge of the swine-herd, bears a pure Saxon name, but when cooked it is Frenchified into *pork*. The sheep becomes mutton (*mouton*), and the calf veal (*veau*); while in Scotland, among the household words not employed in England, is the *gigot* (Fr. *gigot*). In other countries, where the upper and the lower classes have always spoken the same language, there is no such difference. The French call the animals by the same name whether they are alive or cooked, and the Germans speak of calves' flesh and swine's flesh.

While Norman French was employed by the aristocracy and the lawyers, Latin was the language chiefly used by the clergy and men of science and literature. Both in England and Scotland, the few who wrote in the vernacular tongue before the time of Henry VIII. found it necessary to apologize for so doing. The English language derived some of its peculiarities from the Norman spoken by the aristocracy, and others from the Latin used by the learned. The nature of the Greek language renders it peculiarly useful for scientific purposes, and in a few instances, from having been so used, it has crept into ordinary discourse—thus, for example, the word *surgeon*, of old spelt *chirurgion*, is derived from the Greek, *cheir*, meaning hand, and *ergon*, work. Such terms as *orthography*, *syntax*, *lithography*, &c., are also derived from the Greek; and it is worthy of notice that one of the most important English words, *church*, is formed from two Greek

words signifying the house of the Lord. On the whole, however, the number of words in our language derived directly from the Greek is very scanty; but a large portion of our vocabulary, as every one who acquires a little knowledge of the structure of languages soon finds out, is derived from the Latin. The instances are so frequent that it is useless to refer to them.

5. Thus, the English of the present day is the Saxon tongue, with a very small quantity of Greek, a larger portion of Latin, and a few peculiarities belonging to the French and other languages mixed up with it. It is a remarkable thing that though the Gothic population of these islands has been so intimately associated with the Celts in Ireland, in the Highlands of Scotland, and, according to the general belief, in Wales, yet there are hardly any words of Celtic origin in the English language.

The words English language must not be supposed to apply to the speech of the people born and brought up in England, and to them only. It is that which the educated and refined part of the inhabitants of England, Scotland, and Ireland, speak and write. Scotsmen have had to do with it as well as Englishmen, since it has been made by the literature of the whole kingdom. The illiterate classes in all parts of the country speak peculiar provincial dialects; and to a person who merely knows our language from books, the conversation of the working classes at the east end of London would appear as grotesque and as unlike true English as if it were the broadest Scotch, or the strongest Irish brogue.

The English language has several peculiarities which distinguish it from the other European tongues. In France, Spain, and Portugal, the language of the original inhabitants was in a manner suppressed by the Roman, and to this day an acquaintance with Latin is the best introduction to a knowledge of French, Spanish, and Portuguese. On the other hand, in Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Holland, the language of the people is of almost purely Gothic origin, and has scarcely taken a tinge from the Latin. Thus, our own is the only great European speech which is derived not from one but from a variety of sources, and is made up as it were from fragments taken here and there from other tongues.

6. The different languages that have been spoken, or are still spoken by the inhabitants of this empire, are shown strongly in the names of persons and places. While the

Romans held rule in the island, a number of the principal personages would have Roman terminations to their names, like the general Aurelius Ambrosius. But none of these names have come down to our time; and no family can trace its descent back to the Roman period, although it is said that the Courtenays are the descendants of Roman emperors. As to places—the names ending in *chester* or *caster* have been already mentioned as derived from Roman fortresses or fortified camps. Some other places obtained Roman names at a later period, probably from churchmen connected with them, and for some ecclesiastical purpose—such as Ashby Puero-rum, Dalby Magna, &c. Many places have French or Norman names, such as Saint Mary le Bon, a parish in London, Ashby de la Zouch, and Beaufort, and Beaully in the north of Scotland. The Norman names, almost entirely confined to the aristocracy, are pretty numerous; as, for instance, Beauclerk, Fitzroy, Fortescue, Delaval. The honest Saxon names are, however, far more abundant throughout the empire—such as Thomson, Smith, Black, Jackson, Armstrong. They are not considered so aristocratic as the Norman names; yet the greater portion of the Normans, when they came over, were low-born but energetic adventurers, while many of the Saxon families whom they overturned belonged to the aristocracy. The ordinary names of places throughout England and the Lowlands of Scotland are Saxon—such as New Port, Oldham, Minehead, Barnby-in-the-Willows, Stonehaven, &c. In the extreme north of Scotland and in the Orkney and Shetland Islands, the names are yet very like those of Denmark and Norway; for example, St Ola, Melsetter, Tankerness, Brindrister Voe, and Laxford. Magnus, a common name for the Norwegian kings, is still used as a Christian name; and there are surnames, such as Trail or Troit, Scambester, Groat, Link-ester, and Youil.

7. Turning from the places where the people are of Gothic origin to those inhabited by the Celts, we find at once, on looking at the names of places in Wales, that the people there speak a language utterly different from any that we have already noticed. We there meet with such names as Llangollen, Llanfihangel, Merthyr Tydvil, Cyfoeth y Brennin. The family appellations are equally distinct from those of the rest of the country—such as Pendennis, Ap Rice, Llewellyn. A Celtic origin is very conspicuous in the names of places in the Highlands of Scotland—as Ballahulish, Kilchurn, Kil-

calmkill, Tomnahurich, Balquhiddie, and Ardkinglass. Every one is familiar with the Highland names generally beginning in Mac—MacCallum Mhor, Macintosh, Macnab, Macvourich, &c. Mac means *son*, and hence the words MacDonald, MacAndrew, MacIan, correspond with Donaldson, Anderson, and Johnson (Ian being the Gaelic for John) in the Saxon parts of the country. Among the Irish also the Mac is of frequent occurrence. They have a Macdonell family, they have MacNeills, MacDonoghs, MacCartys, MacMurrroughs, and MacGuires. The well known O is, however, chiefly used in that country—as in O'Connell, O'Connor, &c. Antiquaries affirm that it is the same as Mac; that the word as it was used of old was either *mo* or *ma*, and while the *m* was taken away from the former by usage, a *c* was added to the other. The names of places in Ireland resemble many of those in the Western Highlands, and show a common origin—as Ballymahon, Ballyshannon, Derrymore, Killconnel, Athlone, Cladaugh. It is easy to see in these words a similarity to Ballahulish, Kilmonivaig, Glen More, Glen Derry, Athole, and Cladich. It is very probable that, if an accurate search were made, a number of places would be found in both countries with precisely the same name.

Thus we see how the United Kingdom is divided between two distinct races, the one of Gothic and the other of Celtic origin, more or less mixed together. It has been generally remarked that everything great accomplished for several hundred years in this country has been done by the people of Gothic race, or in the parts of the country chiefly inhabited by them—by the Saxons of England and Ireland, and the Lowlanders of Scotland. Literature, arts, commerce, industry, civilisation, have all been the work of their hands. We must not, however, infer that the Celts are a permanently inferior race. It has already been said, in the last chapter, that there was a time when the Celts of Ireland had more literature than the rest of the United Kingdom. It would be fair to suppose that since then their position has been depressed by peculiar circumstances in their history, and to hope that at some future day they may rise to the level of their neighbours.

EXERCISES.

1. By what names are the two races which inhabit Britain known? What mark of their difference do we find? Describe the various ways in which the Gothic race came into the country.
2. Was the ancient language of Scotland greatly different from that of England? How and when did they become different? Mention some words which show an affinity between the Scots and some continental nations.

3. What appears to have been the original language of the Irish? By what means did people of Gothic origin spread themselves over the island?

4. What was the effect of the Norman conquest on the English language? Mention some relics of the use of Norman French. How was the Latin used? How far did our language derive any thing from the Greek?

5. Of what is the English language composed? Has England alone contributed to the formation of this language? Mention something in which it is quite unlike the other languages of Europe.

6. In what are the different languages spoken by the people remarkably shown? Give some account of the vestiges of the Roman language. Give some names of places and persons of Norman origin. Give instances of Saxon origin. In what part of the country are the names of Norwegian origin?

7. In what part of England do the names show a language different from the Saxon? In what part of Scotland do Celtic names preponderate? In what other part of the United Kingdom do we find the same sort of names? Which has lately been the superior race—the Gothic or the Celtic? What ought we to infer regarding the Celtic?

CHAPTER IX.

ENGLAND DURING THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR, A. D. 1066—1087.

William the Conqueror—Submission of London—Norman Spoliation—Rewards bestowed on the Conquerors—Saxon Revolt under Earl Morcar—Hereward the Saxon—Death of William I.—Domesday-book—The Forest Laws—The Church.

1. THE NORMAN CONQUEST.—MORE than a century and a half had elapsed since Rollo, the sea-king, had received baptism at the hands of the Archbishop of Rouen, A. D. 912, and been acknowledged vassal to his father-in-law, Charles the Simple, for the country afterwards called Normandy, from the northern origin of its conquerors. The fifth descendant from Rollo was Robert II., surnamed the Devil, on whose death his son William had acquired great renown by defending against numerous enemies the inheritance transmitted to him by his father, notwithstanding his illegitimacy; and now the victory of Senlac or Hastings appeared to have crowned all his wishes. William's first care after the battle was to secure his communications with the continent; and therefore, instead of advancing to London, he moved towards Dover, spreading devastation as he went. The strong fortress of Dover Castle was treacherously surrendered, and the conqueror, now assured of retreat in case of reverse, for the Saxons had not given up

all for lost, marched direct to London. Here the witenagemot had assembled; but unfortunately there were several competitors for the crown, and much time was lost ere it was agreed to elect Edgar Atheling, the grandson of Edmund Ironside, to the vacant throne. When William appeared before the capital, he found the gates closed and the inhabitants prepared for resistance. After burning the suburb of Southwark, he marched to Wallingford; while detachments of his soldiery committed the most ferocious ravages in Surrey, Sussex, Hants, and Berkshire, the smoking ruins of towns and villages marking the course of his army. He next moved to Berkhamstead, thus interrupting all communication with the north. London now began to suffer from William's skilful though desolating policy, and the citizens, losing heart, sent a submissive deputation to swear allegiance to the Conqueror. The duke formally accepted the crown thus offered to him, and announced that the coronation should take place at the approaching festival of Christmas; but he would not enter the city until a fortress (afterwards the Tower) was built for his reception.

2. The new king took numerous precautions to secure the throne he had gained by his sword. He disarmed the citizens of London and of the chief cities in the kingdom, built castles to overawe them, or repaired those which already existed, and garrisoned them with Norman soldiers. To recompense his followers, he began the most extraordinary and unjust act of spoliation upon record. Royal commissioners were appointed to draw up an exact inventory of every kind of property, whether belonging to the state or to private individuals. They were further instructed to set down the names of all the English who were, or who should have been, present at the battle of Hastings, and divide them into three classes: 1st, The killed; 2d, The wounded, fugitives, and prisoners; 3d, Those who were not present at the battle. As soon as this list was complete, all the possessions of the obnoxious persons were seized. In the first place, the children and relations of the slain were disinherited for ever. The lives of all in the second class were spared, but they also were utterly despoiled. The members of the third class lost every thing, but they were promised that, after long years of subserviency to the new dynasty, their descendants might perhaps receive from the royal gratitude some small portion of the inheritance of which they had been deprived.

The produce of this confiscation was immense. The king first seized upon Harold's treasure, which was considerable: he then despoiled the churches and convents of their silver and jewels, and forced the merchants to give up their rarest and most valuable merchandise. He liberally rewarded the churches and monasteries of Normandy that had prayed for the success of his expedition, and sent the pope a number of rich presents, with the English standard taken at Hastings. To gratify his rapacious followers, he distributed among them not only domains and manors, but castles, towns, and cities. Women of high birth, widows of those who had bravely fallen in battle against the invaders, and wealthy heiresses, were given in marriage to those of his companions who had stipulated for the hands of princesses; while large sums of money were granted to such as desired no other reward for their services. In some places the inhabitants were distributed as booty; and the king received, like his followers, wealthy burghers, who became his property, and who annually paid him a certain rent. One Norman had for his share a castle, twenty houses in the town, and one hundred and fifty-nine manorial dwellings surrounded with land in a state of cultivation: another dispossessed thirty Saxon proprietors, who became serfs attached to the glebe. The English who attempted to defend the honour of their daughters, or the bread necessary to their existence, were hanged as rebels, and the revolting details of their spoliation leave on the mind a deep feeling of detestation for the ruthless conqueror.

3. England was not yet subdued, and only six months had elapsed since the battle of Hastings, when William revisited Normandy, where he was received with the greatest enthusiasm. During his absence, the Saxons, already bitterly exasperated by spoliation and ill treatment, were driven to revolt by the tyranny of the regent Odo; but though several popular outbreaks took place, they were not of a formidable character, and were easily suppressed. After an absence of eight months, the conqueror returned, and in 1068 extended his power over all the south-western portion of England, everywhere building fortresses and distributing estates among his followers. The dispossessed Saxons became outlaws, and fled into the woods, where they supported themselves by the spoils of the surrounding country.

William's next campaign was undertaken for the subjugation of the central and northern provinces, and preser

greater difficulties and dangers than he had yet encountered. The Earls Morcar and Edwin, Harold's brothers-in-law, had raised the standard of independence on the north of the Humber, a river which had not hitherto been crossed by a Norman soldier. Their followers were brave and determined; but the conqueror came upon them unawares, and the city of York was taken by storm. Still the Normans were not safe beyond the walls of that fortress; and, in 1069, it became necessary for them to extend their frontiers farther north. Now came the fiercest struggle of all. Aided by a strong auxiliary body of Danes, the Saxon army recaptured York, and when William marched to its recovery, the natives everywhere rose in his rear. After an obstinate resistance the city fell once more, and the Normans entered Northumbria, devastating the cultivated fields, burning towns and villages, and massacring indiscriminately men, women, and children. "From York to Durham," wrote William of Malmesbury about eighty years after, "not an inhabited village remained. Fire, slaughter, and desolation made a vast wilderness there, which continues to this day." Language can but faintly describe the horrors of this "dismal slaughter," as a contemporary calls it, who adds that more than 100,000 victims perished. Famine and its attendant pestilence followed in the conqueror's train; and when the dead horses of the Normans no longer afforded sustenance, the Northumbrians are reported to have fed on human flesh.

HEREWARD THE SAXON.—It would be a tedious and a melancholy task to recount the tale of England's woes during the long period that elapsed between the battle of Hastings and the firm establishment of the Norman rule. Although the nation offered no combined resistance to the progress of the conqueror, yet there were patriots in many quarters who took advantage of the natural difficulties of the country to oppose William's victorious career. Of these Hereward, "England's darling," was the chief, who in the camp of refuge, in the fens of Ely, and afterwards in the marshes of Lincolnshire, withstood all the forces the Normans could bring against him. He fell at last by treachery; but such was his reputation, that it became a popular saying among both Saxons and Normans, that if there had been four like him in England the French would never have entered it, and that, if he had not been killed, he would, one day or another, have expelled them all.

4. Although Saxon England was now quiet and subdued,

William's reign was by no means one of tranquillity. His subjects in Maine rebelled, and it was principally by the assistance of a Saxon army that they were reduced to submission. Nor were the Normans in England entirely obedient to the conqueror's rule, for, in 1075, they entered into a conspiracy to dethrone him; but their designs being betrayed, the chiefs suffered the penalty of their treason. In his domestic life, also, William experienced much unhappiness. Robert, his eldest son, revolted, and in a skirmish nearly slew his father: Richard, his second son, was gored to death by a stag in the New Forest; and his two favourites, William and Henry, were with difficulty restrained from quarrelling with each other.

But William's end was approaching. In 1086, he prepared for war against France for the possession of the city of Mantes and the adjoining territory. Temporary indisposition retarded the course of hostilities, which, on the king's recovery, were renewed with ferocious violence, in consequence of a coarse jest uttered by Philip of France. Mantes was taken and burnt to the ground; and as the conqueror rode up to view the havoc he had caused, his horse stumbled amid the burning embers. The aged and unwieldy monarch received a fatal hurt from his fall, which brought on an inflammation which the leechcraft of those days could neither cure nor allay. For six weeks he lingered in great pain, and died near Rouen on the 9th of September 1087. No sooner had he breathed his last sigh than all his attendants deserted him to look after their own interests, not forgetting to strip the royal apartments of everything they could carry away—arms, plate, linen, and even the kingly robes. For nearly three hours the dead body of the once powerful monarch lay almost naked on the bare floor; until the monks of Saint Gervas, in whose convent he had expired, came to pray over his dishonoured corpse.

5. DOMESDAY-BOOK.—While William was tyrannical to the Saxon people, he was resolved also to keep his own Norman followers in awe. As soon as he found that his new vassals were encroaching on the rights of the crown, he showed an intention of treading in the footsteps of the great Alfred. For this purpose he nominated a commission of inquiry, whose labours extended over six years. The book in
A. D. 1086-1088. } which its results were recorded is known as the *Domesday-book*, and contains a tolerably accurate account of the change of property throughout thirty counties. When this inquisition was completed, he assembled at Winchester

all who had assisted in the conquest of England, or their direct heirs, when the number was found to amount to 60,215 individuals, of whom the lowest in rank possessed sufficient land for the maintenance of a horse.

THE FOREST LAWS.—Towards the close of his reign William's avarice became proverbial. Independently of the crown domains, he had seized for himself nearly 1500 manors in the best parts of England; and by means of taxation, extortion, and robbery, accumulated enormous sums of money in the royal treasury. He was passionately fond of the chase, and converted into a hunting-ground a tract of country in Hampshire measuring ninety miles in circumference, and containing thirty-six populous parishes. The inhabitants he expelled without any indemnity, and destroyed the churches and monasteries, converting the whole into a desert. This district was called the *New Forest*, and to protect the game in it and the other royal domains, the most severe laws were enacted. While the murder of a man might be atoned for by a pecuniary fine, it was decreed that whoever should kill a deer should have his eyes torn out. Every other animal, whose pursuit and capture could anywise minister to the amusement of the royal hunter, was similarly protected; and an old writer remarks, that "this savage king loved wild beasts as if he had been their father." It was to this fatal propensity, so tyrannically indulged in, that the country owed a long series of harsh and oppressive laws, not calculated to serve any good end. The great English lawyer, Blackstone, says: "In the Saxon times, though no man was allowed to kill or chase the king's deer, yet he might start any game, pursue, and kill it upon his own estate. But the rigour of these new constitutions vested the sole property of all the game in England in the king alone; and no man was entitled to disturb any fowl of the air, or any beast of the field, of such kinds as were specially reserved for the royal amusement of the sovereign, without express license from the king, by a grant of a chase or freewarren: and those franchises were granted as much with a view to preserve the breed of animals, as to indulge the subject. From a similar principle to which, though the forest laws are now mitigated, and by degrees grown entirely obsolete," yet from this root has sprung the modern game law, founded upon the notion of permanent property in wild creatures, and productive of tyranny to the commons.

6. THE CHURCH.—For some time after the conquest the

inferior clergy remained strongly attached to the national cause, while the superior dignitaries were almost all either Normans or friendly to the new order of things. In the many battles which preceded the final subjugation of the country, the English had in general been animated and led on by their priests; and hence the high esteem in which the ecclesiastics were held by the people, and the determination of the Conqueror to diminish their power. Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, who had refused to place the crown on William's head, was accordingly removed, and Lanfranc, one of the most celebrated scholars and teachers of his day, was raised to the primacy. Lanfranc was nearly ninety years old at the time of his appointment; but age had not blunted his faculties or impaired his activity. He recovered many of the ancient possessions of his see, firmly maintained its privileges even against Odo, the Conqueror's half-brother, and commenced an extensive reform in the discipline of the English church. He gave his cordial assistance in removing the ignorant or immoral of the native clergy; and though in many instances he countenanced harsh and severe measures, there can be little doubt that these ejections had the effect of raising the character of the church by filling it with men of learning.

While William was thus engaged in overturning the institutions of the country he had conquered, he himself was summoned by Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand) to do homage, as a vassal of Saint Peter, for his English possessions. The king stoutly refused, but agreed that the tax of Peter's pence should be revived and regularly paid into the Roman treasury. William followed up this resistance by several measures calculated to prevent the papal encroachments; such as enacting that no pontiff should be recognised in his dominions without his previous sanction; that all the pope's briefs and letters should be submitted to his inspection before they were made public; that no decision of any synod should be executed without his authorization; and, finally, that no tenant-in-chief of the crown should be liable to censure or trial in any ecclesiastical court. One general order of church-service was also established by authority throughout the realm.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the origin of William of Normandy? Describe his proceedings after the battle of Hastings. Who was elected to the vacant throne? What constrained the inhabitants of London to tender their submission to William? How did he enter London?

2. What were the precautions taken by the Conqueror to secure the throne he had gained? Describe the method in which he confiscated property through a commission. What other acts of spoliation did he commit? How did he gratify the rapacity of his followers? Give some instances of his tyranny.

3. What occurred during the Conqueror's absence? Who raised the standard of independence? Where did the Saxons resist in the north? What atrocities were committed by the Normans? By whom and where was the camp of refuge formed?

4. What were the domestic evils under which he suffered? With what power was he making war just before his death? Narrate the circumstances of his end.

5. Give an account of Domesday-book. What assemblage was held at Winchester? Describe the origin of the forest laws. What penalties were inflicted on their transgressors? What system of laws grew out of their enforcement? What celebrated English lawyer has condemned them?

6. What side did the Saxon clergy take? Who refused to place the crown on William's head? Describe the proceedings of Lanfranc. What line of conduct did William pursue in his intercourse with the pope? What rebellion and conspiracy disturbed the latter years of William's life?

CHAPTER X.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF WILLIAM RUFUS TO THE DEATH OF STEPHEN, A. D. 1087—1154.

William II. (Rufus), A. D. 1087—1100.

William Rufus—Rebellion of Odo—Revolt of Northumbria—The New Forest—Henry I.—Robert Duke of Normandy—The Count of Breteuil—Death of Prince William—State of Learning and the Church—Arts and Manufactures—Stephen—Battle of the Standard—Matilda's Invasion—Treaty of Winchester.

1. WILLIAM, surnamed Rufus or the Red, was on his way to England from Normandy, when he received intelligence of his father's death; and with eager haste he hurried to Winchester, where he secured possession of the royal treasure, amounting to 60,000 pounds weight of fine silver, with gold and precious stones to a large value. His next care was to assemble the prelates and such of the nobles as were then in England, to whom he announced the death of his father. These elected him king, and he was crowned by Archbishop Lanfranc in the cathedral of Winchester, on the 26th of September 1087, while the barons who had remained in Normandy were holding a council regarding the succession. Many of them pos-

essed property both in England and on the continent, and therefore desired to see the two countries united under the government of Robert, the Conqueror's eldest son, but their designs were frustrated by William's activity.

The Norman barons, who had not concurred in the Red King's election, now resolved to depose him in favour of his elder brother. William, perceiving that his countrymen were conspiring against him, called the Saxons to his aid, and by means of great concessions and promises induced them to support his cause. Flattered by his confidence, thirty thousand Englishmen arrayed themselves under his banner; and with this army he marched towards the city of Rochester, where Odo and the other conspirators had fortified themselves. The Saxons displayed great ardour in the siege, and soon forced the garrison to capitulate. Amid the execrations of the native troops, Odo, the prelate who had invoked a blessing on the invading army at the battle of Hastings, quitted England never to return. The quarrel between the two brothers was settled not long after: the king preserving his crown and Robert his duchy, with a reversion to the survivor in case of the death of either.

But the Saxons experienced no alleviation of their misery, and in some respects they were worse treated than before. When the danger was over, William forgot his promises, and even increased the oppressions they had endured under his father. He seized the temporalities of the vacant bishoprics and abbeys, which he neglected to fill up, that he might enjoy their revenues, and some of them he openly set up for sale or bestowed upon his lay favourites.

2. The very quarrels of the conquerors were fraught with fatal consequences to the English; for when the revolt of certain Northumbrian barons in 1094 had been punished by confiscation and the wasting of their lands, the whole of the taxes were exacted from the Saxon commonalty.

About the middle of this century the Turks, a fierce and war-like people of Mongolian origin, having expelled the Saracens from Syria, so oppressed the Christian pilgrims to Jerusalem, that at last, under the fiery eloquence of Peter the Hermit, all Western Europe armed to rescue the Holy Land from the infidels. Robert joined this first Crusade (as it was called from the red cross worn on the garments of each warrior), and mortgaged his duchy to Rufus for 10,000 marks, A.D. 1095. The king, however, did not long enjoy his territorial acquisition being suddenly cut off in the career of his tyranny and debauch

ery. It was the popular belief that the New Forest, which had been so unjustly and barbarously acquired by the first William for a hunting-ground, would prove fatal to the descendants of the Conqueror, and the violent death of two of them within its precincts had fostered the vulgar superstition. William himself was not without his apprehensions. On the 1st of August 1100, he was at Malwood-keep, one of his hunting-seats, along with his brother Henry and a goodly company of nobles. He passed a restless night, and his mind was so disturbed by unpleasant dreams, that he abandoned his design of hunting. After dinner, however, his spirits revived from the effects of a more than ordinary quantity of wine, and unable to refrain from his favourite amusement, he rode into the forest. According to the usual manner of conducting the sport, the company separated in pursuit of game, and in the evening the king was found weltering in his blood, having been pierced to the heart with an arrow. The commonly received account of his death is, that Sir Walter Tyrrel, one of the party, shot him by accident; but others allege that the shaft was sped by the ambition of his brother Henry, or the revenge of some injured Saxon. He was forty years old, and had reigned nearly thirteen years.

To Rufus England is indebted for some of the stateliest monuments of early Norman architecture. By his orders were constructed the first bridge of London and the noble hall at Westminster. His courtiers imitated his example in their respective provinces, and princely structures were raised in every direction. He had also conceived the design of rearing an immense palace, to which Westminster Hall should be merely the vestibule.

Henry I. (Beauclerc), A. D. 1100—1135.

3. HENRY I., surnamed Beauclerc on account of his learning, rode off to Winchester immediately after the king's death, and seized upon the royal treasures. These he employed in gaining partisans. He became popular chiefly by recalling Anselm, Lanfranc's successor in the archbishopric of Canterbury, who had been compelled to leave England. Anselm was instrumental in promoting Henry's Union with Maud or Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scotland, and a descendant of Alfred the Great, through her mother Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling. This politic marriage, which united the Saxon and the Norman dynasties, rendered the

king so powerful in England, that he had no longer cause to fear his elder brother Robert, who was in Palestine at the time of the death of Rufus, and returned to England at the head of his barons. Their differences, however, were terminated without bloodshed, Robert consenting to renounce his claim to the throne of England, and Henry promising to surrender all his fortresses in Normandy, and to pay an annual pension of three thousand marks, besides granting a general amnesty to the Anglo-Norman lords who had joined Robert's army.

But Robert had scarcely returned to Normandy, before Henry proceeded against the barons who had favoured his brother's cause, and whom he had promised to pardon. They resisted, and the result of a sort of civil war against them was, that one by one nearly all the great nobles, the sons of those who had conquered England, were outlawed, and their estates and honours given to Henry's favourites. The peace concluded between the king and his brother was not of long duration; and in 1105 and 1106, Henry invaded Normandy under the pretence of delivering its inhabitants from the tyranny of their duke, defeated him at Tenchebray, and having taken him prisoner, shut him up in one of his castles, where he was cruelly deprived of his eyesight. In this dismal captivity he passed twenty-eight years, until death put an end to his sufferings. After the victory of Tenchebray, Henry became master of all Normandy, which he annexed to the English crown.

4. It is impossible for pen to describe the atrocious manners of the times, and the excesses to which the thirst for revenge carried the powerful lords of this period. Henry, who had great cause to fear the violence of the men whom he had injured, never slept unarmed, and was continually changing his bed-chamber; but such precautions did not prevent him from being tormented by horrible visions that rarely allowed him to enjoy sound repose. Many odious traits in his character might be pointed out, but one alone will suffice to show how foreign to him was every sentiment of humanity. He had given the hand of Juliana, one of his natural daughters, to Eustace, count of Breteuil, who solicited the gift of an important fortress. A warrior named Harenc was then governor of the place, and Henry, who doubted the count's fidelity, promised that it should be surrendered to him at the conclusion of the war with France, and as a pledge

of Harenc's good faith, placed the son of that warrior in Eustace's hands, requiring in return, by way of security, the count's two daughters that Juliana had borne him. This arrangement did not long please the Count of Breteuil. The barbarian caused Harenc's son to be brought before him, and having torn out both his eyes, sent him back in this condition to his father. We may easily imagine the grief and rage of the warrior when his mutilated son appeared before him. He flew to Henry, demanded justice, and claimed the count's two daughters, that he might retaliate on them their father's atrocity. The count took flight as soon as he heard that Henry intended to deliver his person into Harenc's hands, and the king did not hesitate for one moment to sacrifice his two grandchildren. Harenc, insensible alike to their innocence and their youth, tore out their eyes and cut off their noses in the king's presence, and some writers assert that Henry himself was the executioner. The unhappy Juliana withdrew to the city of Breteuil, to which Henry laid siege. When abandoned by the garrison, she desired to speak to the monster who called himself her father, and as he approached, discharged an arrow at him, but which did not reach the mark, and she was compelled to surrender at discretion. Henry, more cruel than ever, had no compassion for the afflicted mother; but, causing all the gates of the castle to be shut, he ordered her to leave it immediately under pain of death, and forbade any one to aid her in the attempt. She was therefore compelled to drop half-naked from the rampart into the moat that surrounded the castle; and it being the winter season, she sunk through the ice up to the waist in water and mire, and with difficulty reached the other side.

5. Henry's son, William, inherited none of his mother Matilda's kindly feelings towards the English, and he is reported to have said publicly, that if ever he ascended the throne, he would yoke the Saxons like oxen to the plough. At the age of eighteen, he was married to the daughter of the Count of Anjou; and after the nuptial festivities, Henry and his court prepared for their return to England. On reaching Barfleur, the port at which they were to embark, a mariner named Fitzstephen, whose father had steered the vessel in which William the Conqueror sailed for the invasion of England, begged that he might enjoy the like honour of conveying the king to his insular dominions, and offered him the use of the "White Ship," manned by fifty skilful seamen.

Henry had already chosen a vessel for himself, but agreed to intrust to his care the prince with his retinue and companions. The king set sail in the afternoon, and on the following morning reached England; but William did not leave the harbour till night had set in, having spent the intervening hours in feasting and dancing on the deck with his companions. At last the White Ship left her moorings, and the crew, excited by a liberal allowance of wine, rowed lustily by the bright light of the moon to overtake the king, when suddenly the vessel struck upon a rock, and in a short time sank to the bottom. Of more than three hundred persons who were on board, nearly a half belonged to the noblest families of England and Normandy, and the only one who escaped was a poor butcher of Rouen, who clung to a piece of the wreck, and was picked up next morning by some fishermen.

In this awful catastrophe, that brought mourning to so many Norman families, the oppressed Saxons imagined that they could trace the retributive justice of God. The bereaved monarch was never again seen to smile after receiving the fatal news, although he survived the event fifteen years, and continued to pursue his ambitious projects with undiminished ardour.

During the last years of his life, in which he suffered much unhappiness from domestic broils, Henry lived on the continent, and he was preparing for his return to England to suppress a revolt in Wales, when he was seized with a violent fever at Lions-la-Forêt in Normandy, which carried him off A.D. 1135. in a few days, in the sixty-seventh year of his age and the thirty-sixth of his reign.

Henry Beauclerc, himself a scholar, as his name imports, was a liberal patron of learning and the fine arts. He attracted several poets to his court, who were also favoured by his two queens; but the progress made in science and literature during his reign was chiefly owing to the encouragement bestowed on youths in the ecclesiastical schools. The Latin and Greek authors began to be more generally studied, their manuscripts were sought for, and from their works scholars derived their little knowledge of grammar, rhetoric, and logic, as well as some imperfect notions of mathematics, astronomy, music, and medicine. These five branches of science formed, respectively, the *trivium* and *quadrivium* of the schools of this period.

6. THE CHURCH.—A short time after Henry's accession, a

serious difference arose between him and the clergy, when he called upon Anselm to do homage for his archbishopric of Canterbury. This the prelate refused, on the ground that a recent council had threatened excommunication against every layman who should grant investiture of any ecclesiastical benefice, and every priest who should receive it from such a source. This dispute, after much double-dealing on the part of Pope Pascal II., was terminated by an arrangement, that the king should abstain from investiture with ring and crozier, and that the dignitaries of the church should do homage for the temporalities of their sees. In 1108, a council was held in London to enforce the rule of clerical celibacy; and it was enacted that all married priests should immediately put away their wives, and not permit them to live in any lands belonging to the church, or see or converse with them except in the presence of witnesses. They were further to undergo several penances, and were suspended from saying mass during a certain period, as a punishment for having married. All refractory priests were to be deposed and excommunicated, their goods to be confiscated, and their wives, as adulteresses, made slaves to their respective bishops.

ARTS AND MANUFACTURES.—About the year 1110, Henry established a colony of Flemings in Pembrokeshire, which proved a source of great commercial wealth to the country by the introduction of a mercantile spirit and the art of manufacturing woollen cloths. They had previously settled in the vicinity of Carlisle, where they did not consort amicably with the natives; and as they were equally ready at the plough and the sword, Henry appears to have removed them into Wales, that they might act as a check upon the troublesome and warlike mountaineers.

The Norman architecture, which had been introduced about the time of the conquest, made considerable progress in England during the reign of Henry. It is known by the arches being round instead of pointed, as they were in the later style called Gothic architecture: indeed, it has been supposed that the Norman architecture was merely a rude adaptation of the Roman. Specimens of it may be seen in the cathedrals of Canterbury and Durham, in Christ's church and St Peter's, Oxford, in the chapel of the White Tower of London, in Dunfermline abbey and Leuchars church in Fifeshire, and in the cathedral of St Magnus in Orkney.

CRUSADES.—These religious wars, which lasted for nearly two centuries, have been divided into seven periods:—The *first* crusade dates from the Council of Clermont in 1095, but the expedition did not set out until the following year. It was headed by the noblest knights of the times—Godfrey of Bouillon and his brother Baldwin, Hugh the Great of France, Raymond of Toulouse, and others. Jerusalem was rescued from the infidels in 1099, and a Christian kingdom founded in Palestine, the crown of which was conferred on Godfrey. It lasted until 1187. The *second* crusade was in 1147, when the Emperor Conrad III. and Louis VII. of France took the cross. This was a complete failure, the army being wasted away in its march through Asia Minor. The *third* crusade (1189) was undertaken to recover Jerusalem, which had been captured by Saladin the Great, caliph of Egypt. It was led by the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, Philip Augustus, and Richard I. The emperor was drowned in Asia Minor; Ptolemais (Acre) was taken by the allied English and French armies, after a siege of three years and nine battles. The *fourth* crusade (1202) was directed not against the infidels, but against Constantinople, which was easily conquered. The emperor was deposed, and the crown conferred on Baldwin of Flanders, with a fourth part of the empire, the remainder being divided between Thibaut of Champagne, Boniface of Montferrat, and Simon of Montfort. The *fifth* crusade (1227) was conducted by the Emperor Frederick II., who received the city of Jerusalem in exchange for his alliance with the Sultan of Egypt against his enemy the Sultan of Damascus. The *sixth* crusade (1249) was undertaken by Louis IX. of France, to recover the Holy City, which had again fallen into the hands of the Mohammedans. He invaded Egypt, captured Damietta, was defeated at Mansurah, and obliged to purchase his retreat by a ransom of 400,000 livres. England was the pioneer of the *seventh* and last crusade (1270). While St Louis was wasting his army in Tunis, Prince Edward sailed to Palestine; but not being able to accomplish his plans, he returned home, and was the last among Christian princes who dreamt of recovering the Holy Land.

Although several millions of lives were sacrificed, it cannot be doubted that the crusades were accompanied by many beneficial effects: among them may be reckoned the increased activity of political life in Europe; the union of

different nations in a common object, and that a noble and unselfish one ; an improvement in manners and habits ; the weakening of feudalism by the sale of estates to merchants in exchange for money wanted by the nobles for their military equipments and provisions ; the great extension of commerce, and the increased wealth of the mercantile towns in Italy, which led to the revival of the fine arts and of learning in that country. But it must be remembered that these ameliorations were of slow growth, and that some did not even bear fruit until several generations had passed away.

FEUDALISM.—The feudal system was the growth of circumstances. Its earliest traces are to be found in the relation of patron and client among the Romans ; but it took a more developed form in the military colonies of Gaul, where lands were granted to the soldiers, and allowed to descend to their children, on the condition of military service. When the Franks overran that province, they adopted and modified this system, the leaders giving portions of the conquered territory to their principal officers on a like condition of service. Hence arose the Salic custom restricting these fiefs (as they were called) to males only, women being held incapable of military service or of leading the armed force of the nation in time of war. The fiefs were personal grants, reverting to the over-lord or suzerain on failure of the conditions or at the death of the vassal. By slow degrees the powerful nobles took advantage of the weakness of the Frank monarchs, and made their fiefs hereditary ; and then began the custom of subinfeudation, the vassals portioning out their estates among their inferiors, to whom they stood in the position of over-lords. The sub-vassals did the same with their fiefs ; and the practice was seen to be so beneficial in an early and rude state of society, when might was the only law, that the holders of allodial (or free) lands were glad to hold them *in capite* of some neighbouring and powerful chief. Feudalism rapidly embraced Gaul, Italy, and Germany, and afterwards extended so completely over the whole of civilized Europe, that it took the place of all other kinds of tenure. William I. gave it a completer form in England than it had as yet assumed on the continent ; but it never struck deep root in this country, and soon began to yield before the power of the kings and the increasing influence of the commercial classes. In Scotland it existed in a slightly modified shape until a very late period.

Stephen, A. D. 1135—1154.

7. After the melancholy death of Prince William, Henry's only surviving legitimate child was Maud or Matilda, who became the wife of Henry V., emperor of Germany. Being left a widow in 1124, she returned to her father, by whom she was married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, count of Anjou, in 1127. In a general assembly of nobility and clergy held at Windsor Castle in 1126, she had been declared nearest heir to the throne, all swearing to maintain her succession; and when, in 1133, she was delivered of a son, who was named Henry after his grandfather, the barons of England and Normandy swore fealty to her and her heirs. But oaths of fidelity in those days were as unscrupulously broken as they were heedlessly made; and the old king was scarcely dead before these same barons and the clergy elected his sister's son, Stephen, count of Blois, to the vacant throne, declaring that they would not have a woman to rule over them.

The early days of the new reign were peaceful and happy, and by lavishing his treasures Stephen confirmed the attachment of his adherents and acquired extensive popularity. He made liberal grants of the estates which the Conqueror had reserved for his own portion; and created earls and independent governors in districts hitherto administered by royal officers. Geoffrey of Anjou, Matilda's husband, received a pension of 5000 marks on condition of remaining neuter; and Robert of Gloucester, the late king's natural son, rendered homage and made oath of fidelity.

But this calm was not of long duration; and about 1137, Matilda's partisans openly declared themselves. The English nation took no part in the quarrels of their conquerors, as they had done in former years, but prepared to profit by their dissensions, and even formed a plan to massacre all the Normans in one day. The conspirators renewed the ancient alliance of the Saxon patriots with the Welsh and Scots, and designed to place the king of the latter people on their emancipated throne. The secret was revealed in the confessional; most of the conspirators escaped into Wales, while those who were seized were put to death in various ways.

8. BATTLE OF THE STANDARD.—In 1138, notwithstanding the failure of the Saxon conspiracy, David, king of Scotland, entered England to support his niece Matilda's claim to the throne. He was immediately joined by the population of the

frontier counties; and the invading army soon overran almost without resistance the whole country from the Tweed to the boundaries of Yorkshire. It would appear that David's army committed many barbarous excesses, which were purposely exaggerated to arouse the spirit of the English. At the same time the Norman barons skilfully appealed to old local superstitions: they invoked the names of the Saxon saints, whom they had formerly treated with contempt, and Archbishop Thurstan of York brought forth the ancient banners of St Cuthbert of Durham, St John of Beverley, and St Wilfrid of Ripon. The Anglo-Norman army occupied a position at Northallerton, between York and Durham, and here they erected that remarkable standard, from which the battle takes its name. It consisted of a four-wheeled car, on which was fixed the mast of a ship decorated with the banners of the three English saints, and surmounted by a large crucifix and a silver box containing the consecrated wafer. The Scots, whose banner was a simple pennon, like a lancer's flag, advanced impetuously to the combat with loud shouts of "Albyn! Albyn!" But notwithstanding their gallantry they produced little effect upon the mail-clad Normans, and suffered much from the Saxon archers, who galled them on each flank. During more than two hours the struggle continued, until, wearied rather than defeated, the assailants gave way and fled. A large body, however, retreated in such good order as to prevent pursuit; and three days afterwards, the Scottish king collected his scattered forces at Carlisle, and prepared to resume offensive operations. The battle of the Standard, in which 12,000 of the Scots are said to have fallen, was fought on the 22d of August 1138. It was the principal event of the war, which was brought to a close in the following year by a treaty that left David in possession of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland.

9. In September 1139, Matilda, in compliance with the wishes of her partisans, landed at Arundel in Sussex, where she was surprised by the king, who, though he had her completely in his power, generously allowed her to join her half-brother Robert at Bristol. At the news of her arrival, many of the barons in the north and west renounced their allegiance to Stephen and ranged themselves on her side; while numerous bands of foreign mercenaries crowded to the standards of each party, attracted by the hope of plunder. As usual in such contests the people suffered the greatest miseries; and

so extreme was the terror excited by the atrocities of the soldiery, that the appearance of two or three horsemen near a town was sufficient to drive the inhabitants from their dwellings. Many were shut up in the feudal castles, which greatly increased in number during this unsettled period; and the ruthless proprietors did not scruple to practise the most ferocious cruelties to extort the treasures of their prisoners. So utter was the desolation to which the country was reduced by this intestine war, that a traveller might go a whole day's journey without seeing a cultivated field or meeting a human being.

It would be tedious to follow the course of hostilities down to the time when Stephen was defeated and taken prisoner at Lincoln by the Earl of Gloucester, Matilda's natural brother. A.D. } Before the end of the year he was restored to liberty
1141. } in exchange for Gloucester, who had fallen into the hands of Stephen's partisans. Without coming to any decisive engagement, the opposing parties kept the country in constant alarm by a succession of petty skirmishes, and seemed to vie with each other in burning and pillaging defenceless towns and villages. At length, in 1153, the death of Prince Eustace, Stephen's son, removed the principal obstacle to negotiation; and at a council held at Winchester in November, Stephen declared his heir and successor to be Henry Plantagenet, son of Matilda and the Count of Anjou. The king did not long survive this arrangement: he died at Dover on the 25th October 1154, in the fiftieth year of his age, and was buried at Faversham in Kent by the side of his wife Maud, who had been dead three years.

EXERCISES.

1. Who competed with William Rufus for the crown? How did the brothers settle their differences? To whose aid did William appeal against the Normans? Did he keep his promises?

2. What caused a revolt in Northumberland? What was the origin of the Crusades? How did William acquire Normandy? Describe the circumstances of his death. What great building did he raise?

3. How did Henry I. consolidate his power? Against whom had he to contest the throne? What arrangement was made regarding England and Normandy? What was the result of the dispute when it broke out again?

4. What was the character of the court and aristocracy in Henry's time? Mention the persons concerned in a celebrated act of atrocity. What part did Henry take in it?

5. Who was Prince William? How did he threaten to use the Saxons if ever he ascended the throne? Describe the circumstances of his death. What was its effect on the king? What influence did Henry exercise upon literature?

6. Describe the dispute between Henry and the church. How was it

settled? What regulations were made as to the marriage of priests? Mention a circumstance which quickened the progress of manufactures. What is the distinguishing feature of Norman architecture? How many crusades were there? Give an account of each. Describe the origin of feudalism.

7. Who was declared nearest heir to Henry? Who actually succeeded to him? What was the condition of the people in the early part of Stephen's reign? What alliance was formed against him?

8. Whose claims were supported by David, king of Scotland? Where was the battle of the Standard fought? What was its result?

9. Where did Matilda land? Describe the consequences of her arrival and competition for the crown. What arrangement brought hostilities to a conclusion?

CHAPTER XI.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY II. TO THE DEATH OF JOHN, A. D. 1154—1216.

Henry II., A. D. 1154—1189.

Henry II.—Thomas à Becket—Differences with the Clergy—Council of Clarendon—Murder of Becket—Conquest of Ireland—Laws of Inheritance—Condition of the Church—Civil and Political State of Ireland—Strongbow's Expedition—Henry recognised Lord-paramount—Commerce and Trade of England—Richard I.—Persecution of the Jews—The Crusades—Taking of Acre—Richard's Captivity—Prince John's Rebellion—Condition of England—Robin Hood—John—Prince Arthur's Murder—War with France—Dispute with the Pope—The Great Charter—Louis of France—Death of John—Commerce and Arts—Learning and Education.

1. WHILE Henry was Count of Maine he obtained from his mother the duchy of Normandy; and when Louis VII. of France, on his return from the crusade in 1152, repudiated his queen Eleanor, Henry married her within six weeks of her divorce, and thus became master of Guienne and Poitou. He afterwards so enlarged his continental dominions by conquest, that the territory held by him in France exceeded in extent that possessed by the French king himself.

Henry at first governed with vigour and justice, restored public tranquillity by destroying many of the castles whence the barons used to sally forth to plunder the adjacent districts, expelled the crowd of mercenary soldiers whom the civil strife of the preceding reign had attracted to England, and when he thought his power firmly established, endeavoured to bring the clergy under the jurisdiction of the courts of law. But

here he met with opposition from a quarter whence it was least expected.

THOMAS À BECKET.—According to popular tradition, there was among the followers of one of the Norman crusaders a Saxon named Gilbert Becket, who had the misfortune to be taken prisoner. During his captivity in Palestine he gained the affections of his master's daughter, by whose means he was restored to liberty. His benefactress, feeling miserable without him, abandoned her home; and, although she could speak no more English than to say *London* and *Gilbert*, by means of the first she reached England in a pilgrim-ship, and by wandering through the streets repeating the second, she at last found the person she sought. She was baptized and admitted into the Christian church by the name of Matilda, and by her union with Gilbert became the mother of Thomas A.D. } Becket. This story, whether true or false, was long 1117. } remembered. It formed the subject of a popular ballad, which, after it had been forgotten in England, was sung in Scotland; and perhaps there are persons still living who may remember that their nurses sang them to sleep with the ballad of "Young Bekie," in which the romantic marriage of Archbishop Becket's father is related. Thomas concluded his education abroad, and on returning to England he entered the church, and rose rapidly to the grade of Archdeacon of Canterbury. While filling this office he attracted the attention of Henry II., who made him his chancellor, or keeper of the seals, and appointed him preceptor to his eldest son. Becket soon became the king's most intimate companion,—the sharer alike of his pleasures and his political cares. His magnificence was unexampled: the trappings of his horses were covered with gold and silver; his tables groaned beneath the weight of costly vessels and foreign delicacies; and his hawks and hounds were the best and fleetest in England. He enjoyed great power and possessions; and his elevation was the more remarkable from his being the first Englishman who had been appointed to any office of considerable dignity or emolument since the Norman Conquest.

2. Becket laboured assiduously to maintain and increase the power of his sovereign; and more than once he compelled the superior clergy to contribute to the king's pecuniary necessities. Yielding to temporary exigencies, William I. had by a royal decree relieved the clergy from the authority of the ordinary courts of law, and gave them the privilege of

having judges selected from their own order. The consequence of this was, that the starveling priests who followed in the Conqueror's train soon began to indulge in the utmost licentiousness without danger of punishment, their judges being in general not less criminal than themselves. The only means of checking these disorders, which had reached a frightful height in the early years of the reign of Henry II., was to abolish this ecclesiastical privilege. But it must not be forgotten that this law was in some measure favourable to the Saxons, numbers of whom had found peace and security beneath the monkish cowl. Within the church the English escaped the tyranny of their oppressors, and hence became the zealous defenders of her liberties.

The foreign education and exalted rank of Becket seemed to remove him so far from all sympathy with the ancient population, that the friends of ecclesiastical reform selected him as its principal instrument, and after the death of the Archbishop Theobald, he was raised to the vacant see of Canterbury. This nomination met with opposition from two very different parties: the clergy refused to acknowledge the appointment of a man who loved the chase, who had borne arms in battle, and who was a worldling; the Norman barons murmured against the elevation of a man of Saxon descent. Becket himself objected on the ground that Henry's views on church affairs differed from his own, and that disputes would necessarily arise between them. But all was of no avail; and after the English bishops had delayed the election for more than a year, Thomas Becket was dedicated to his new office by the Bishop of Winchester.

A sudden change now took place, according to the usual accounts, in the archbishop's character and mode of life. He wore coarse garments, lived upon the homeliest fare, and appeared with humble and downcast looks. He no longer associated with his former gay companions, but surrounded himself with monks and beggars; and while he became the idol of the people, the inferior clergy looked up to him as their friend and protector.

He soon declared himself the champion of the privileges of his see, and demanded restitution of all the property his church had lost since the Conquest. He called upon Gilbert of Clare to resign the estate of Tunbridge, which his grandfather had held as a knight's fee, and revived similar claims against other barons and the officers of the royal domain. They said that

they and their fathers had long been in possession of these estates; but Becket, on the other hand, urged this was no justification of injustice, and that what had been taken without good title ought to be restored. But these were petty matters in comparison with the great struggle that soon took place.

3. A priest who was accused of murder, having been summoned before the king's justices, Becket declared the citation illegal; but at the same time his own officers apprehended the criminal, and brought him before an ecclesiastical tribunal, by which he was deprived of his benefice, publicly scourged, and suspended from his functions. It was thought that this was done as a bravado, and for the purpose of showing that churchmen were exempt from the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts of law, whose duty it was to do equal justice to all men, whether clergy or laity. In order to settle the question of clerical privilege, Henry convoked a solemn assembly of all the Anglo-Norman barons and prelates, to whom he detailed a long calendar of offences daily committed by the clergy with impunity, and added, that in the ancient customs of his predecessors, and especially of Henry I., he had discovered the means of repressing such disorders. All agreed in the propriety of reviving these customs, the bishops, however, qualifying their assent by the significant words, "saving their order."

The prelates not long after retracted this saving clause, and to give a legal authentication to their promise to observe the laws of the realm, a council was held at Clarendon in Wiltshire, in 1164. Here a series of sixteen enactments was drawn up, subjecting the clergy to the authority of the civil courts for murder, felony, and other crimes. Becket swore to observe these statutes, but retracted soon afterwards; upon which he was deprived of his office, and compelled to flee to the continent. But the threats of Pope Alexander III., and the favour shown by the King of France to the banished prelate, eventually induced Henry to allow the archbishop to resume possession of his see.

As soon as the news of Becket's return was made known, all the poor people flocked around him wherever he passed. But his triumph was of brief duration. In his absence, the property of the church at Canterbury had been sequestrated. This Henry now promised to restore; but the act of reparation being delayed from time to time, Becket excommunicated

all who held any of the lands of his see, and included in this condemnation the Archbishop of York, and the Bishops of London and Salisbury. This proceeding exasperated the king to the highest degree; and four knights of his court, acting upon an unguarded expression which escaped him, murdered the prelate at the foot of the altar in Canterbury A.D. } cathedral. Henry protested his innocence of the cruel
1170. } deed; but the whole Saxon population, who venerated Becket as a saint and a martyr, was hostile to him; and it was with some difficulty, and only after many humiliating concessions, that a sentence of excommunication by the pope was prevented from being issued against him.

4. CONQUEST OF IRELAND.—While the affairs of England were in this critical posture, Henry prepared an expedition against Ireland, with a view of diverting the attention of his subjects from Becket's murder.

Ireland did not belong to any one monarch. Like most of the other nations of Europe at this period, its territory was divided among tribes or clans, each of which formed a separate people under a *cean-finnay*, whose authority was patriarchal. A certain number of clans submitted in their turn to chiefs who bore the title of king, and these last recognised a superior called *ard-riagh*, or sovereign master. The rights of this superior were something like those of the Saxon *bretwalda*—vague and general, and more depending on his ability and generalship than on any fixed principle of government. It was not a settled rule that the eldest son succeeded to the father. In the lifetime of the *cean-finnay*, the members of the clan assembled, and by their votes elected a successor to the reigning chief. It often happened that the heir elect of the *cean-finnay* was his personal enemy, jealous of his authority, and eager to enjoy the succession; and hence originated feuds and bloodshed, which nothing but the death of one or the other could terminate. Sometimes it was difficult to say who was entitled to succeed, and naturally the son of the deceased chief would, if he was strong enough, seize upon that authority which the election had denied him. The law or rather the custom which governed interests so ill defined was called *tanistry*, and the individual elected presumptive heir was styled the *tanist*. More than half the number of these aspirants to the throne were assassinated or fell in battle, and the same may be said of the *tanists* who had become *cean-finnays*. The possessors of land in Ireland no more followed

the modern system of regular hereditary descent than their princes did. When they died their property was subjected to an inheritance, or rather a partition, which has been called *gavelkind*, because it resembled a system to which the Anglo-Saxons gave that name. By this system, when the head of a family died, his lands did not pass to his sons, but were divided among the other chiefs of the family, including the male children of the deceased. The females had no share in this apportionment. It has been already observed that the clergy of Ireland, remote from the see of Rome, did not conform so well to its authority, and to the general practice of the papal church, as those of Britain.

5. About the year 1074, an Irishman named Patrick, having been elected bishop by the clergy, accepted by the people, and confirmed by his *cean-finnay* and the *ard-riagh*, felt certain scruples, which induced him to repair to Canterbury to receive consecration at the hands of an archbishop. His example was followed soon after by other bishops, on whom the holy father conferred the title of pontifical legates; and at length the court of Rome succeeded in appointing in Ireland four archbishops, who were recognised as such by the reigning princes, but who effected so little change in the spirit of the people, that the Irish were still considered bad Christians, and rebels against all ecclesiastical discipline. This was one cause of their ruin. As soon as the ambitious Henry II. perceived the advantages he might derive from the conquest of Ireland, he found a pretext for the execution of his designs in the pretended irreligion of its inhabitants. He obtained from Adrian IV., the only Englishman who ever filled St Peter's chair, a bill authorizing him "to enter into that land of Ireland, in order to reduce the people to obedience to the laws, extirpate the seeds of vice, and extend the borders of the church." Invested with this authority, Henry II. now only waited for a favourable opportunity of carrying his plans into execution.

Ireland was at that time divided into five kingdoms: Leinster, Desmond or South Munster, Thomond or North Munster, Connaught, and Ulster. A sixth portion, Meath, was specially attached to the dignity of *ard-riagh*, which had long been held by the O'Neals, and was now claimed by the O'Connors of the royal line of Connaught. The only places that maintained any intercourse with foreign nations were the seaports inhabited by the descendants of the Danes, called Ostmen, or

men of the East ; and the commerce of Dublin was so flourishing that it even rivalled that of London. But in general the Irish shrunk from labour of any kind, and cared for little beyond the mere animal liberty they enjoyed. Their manners appeared barbarous in the eyes of the English ; for though their round towers showed that they had of old possessed considerable knowledge of architecture, they were at that time unable to employ hewn stone in their buildings, and their garments were made of raw undyed wool. They had preserved their primitive character, which rendered them attached to their friends, and grateful for benefits conferred, but at the same time vindictive, and extremely sensible to insult : in short, they possessed all the virtues and vices of man in an uncivilized state.

6. Important events on the continent had hitherto prevented Henry II. from entering Ireland, when an unexpected opportunity presented itself of gaining a footing in the island: Dermot, king of Leinster, having carried off the wife of O'Ruarc, prince of Leitrim, the injured husband immediately complained to the *ard-riagh*, Turlogh O'Connor, who compelled Dermot to restore the lady. A bloody war consequently ensued between the two chiefs, and Dermot was expelled A.D. } from his territories and forced to take refuge on the 1167. } continent. In order to gain a powerful protector, he did homage for his possessions to Henry II. ; and having obtained from him permission to raise troops in England, Richard de Clare, surnamed Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, with two brothers, named Robert Fitzstephen and Maurice Fitzgerald. agreed to espouse his cause. In the beginning of May, Fitzstephen landed in the bay of Bannow, followed by about 500 men, of whom 140 were knights ; and being joined by Dermot with a body of Irish, he took the city of Wexford. The victors next attacked and defeated Donald, prince of Ossory, and savagely raised a bloody trophy with the heads of the slain. Elated by his success, Dermot now aspired to the sovereignty of the whole island, and anxiously waited for the expected reinforcements from England. At length Fitzgerald landed near Waterford, with twenty knights and 200 archers, where he defeated 3000 men under O'Phelan. He was followed by Strongbow, who brought with him 1200 followers, —a force which the undisciplined Irish were unable to meet in the open field. Waterford was carried by assault, and Dublin, to which Dermot laid siege, surrendered after a feeble

resistance. Here terminated the career of the King of Leinster: he died after having rewarded his auxiliaries by extensive donations of land. But Strongbow, who had married his daughter Eva, inherited his ambition: he usurped his authority, and ordered fortresses to be constructed according to the Norman custom. The Irish then perceived with sorrow that the foreigners whom they had called to their assistance considered themselves lords of the country, and that they were determined to maintain possession of it by force. The princes around Leinster therefore united to repel the invaders, and made the greatest exertions to recover Dublin. The ostman Asculf, seconded by a Norwegian squadron of sixty sail, Roderick, king of Connaught, with a considerable army, and lastly O'Ruarc aided by the people of Meath, successively besieged the capital, but one after the other were utterly defeated (1171).

7. Henry's jealousy was roused on hearing of Strongbow's rapid success, and he not only forbade any of his subjects to cross over to Ireland, but summoned all his liegemen to return into England by the festival of Easter, under penalty of banishment. The earl, who found himself thus suddenly paralyzed in his actions, hastily sent messengers to Henry to do homage for his conquests; but the king refused to listen to them, and confiscated Strongbow's possessions. The latter hesitated no longer, but prostrated himself at his sovereign's feet, and resigned all the conquests he had made. Henry in return confirmed the title of the adventurers to their lands in Ireland, which they now held as fiefs of the crown, and conferred the title of seneschal on the Earl of Pembroke.

Henry next prepared to visit his new dominions in person, and a fleet of 400 sail carried him from Milford Haven to Waterford with 500 knights and a strong body of archers. He received the princes of the country as a sovereign receives his vassals, placed garrisons in their towns, and invited all who recognised his power to visit him in Dublin, where a large wooden palace had been hastily constructed for his reception. Many chiefs appeared, were admitted to his table, and were struck with admiration at the sight of the brilliant arms of the courtiers, the splendid equipments of their horses, and the gold which glittered on their vestments. But O'Connor, the venerable ard-riagh of Ireland, refused to attend, and the princes of Ulster imitated his example. Only the southern part of the country recognised the King of England; all the

north, from the mouths of the Shannon and the Boyne, preserved its independence. Henry II., desirous of combining the assent of the ecclesiastical with that of the lay lords, convoked a synod at Cashel, where he induced the bishop to sign a formal recognition of his sovereignty, and prescribed divers canons which placed them under the same discipline as the clergy of England. These regulations prohibited marriages within the sixth degree of relationship, stipulated that baptism should be performed by the priests in the churches, and never by laymen in private houses, established the regular payment of tithes, and arranged certain interests of the court of Rome.

8. Henry reaped little solid advantage from the occupation of Ireland, and his attention was soon urgently directed to other parts of his dominions. He now began to experience from his own children that spirit of rebellion which seemed hereditary in the descendants of the Conqueror, and which was encouraged by their mother, the jealous and vindictive Eleanor. His eldest son Henry declared war against him, and raised his subjects of Poitou and Aquitaine in opposition to his authority in Normandy. The kings of France and Scotland eagerly seized upon this opportunity of weakening their powerful neighbour; but their enterprise was unfortunate: Louis and his confederates were defeated, and the King of Scotland being made prisoner, was compelled to do homage to the King of England. Although Prince Henry died not long after, his spirit of unnatural hostility was perpetuated in the other members of the royal family. Geoffrey, as duke of Brittany, made war on his father; and Richard Cœur de Lion also revolted against him, and was supported by the King of France. Last of all, John, his darling son, "the child of his heart," proved ungrateful, and the shock to the father's feelings was too much for his exhausted frame. He sank into a deep melancholy, which was succeeded by fever, and at Chinon on the Loire his malady took a fatal turn. His deathbed was comforted by the unwearied attention of his natural son Geoffrey; but in the wanderings of his mind he was heard exclaiming, "Cursed be the day on which I was born, and cursed of God the children I leave behind me." He died on the 6th July 1189, in his fifty-seventh year.

9. COMMERCE AND TRADE.—During this reign the commerce of England was greatly extended, partly by increased communication with France, the coast of which country from the mouth of the Seine to the Pyrenees was subject to the English

crown. The chief imports into the city of London were gold, spices, and frankincense from Arabia; precious stones from Egypt; purple cloths from India; palm-oil from Bagdad; furs and ermines from Norway and Russia; and wine from France. The exports were of great value. Germany annually received by way of the Rhine large cargoes of flesh and fish, especially herrings and oysters. The roofs of the principal buildings in Europe were covered with English lead, and the tin of Cornwall and Devonshire long continued to furnish a considerable portion of the royal revenue. Hides, skins, and cloth were largely exported, and generally paid for in the precious metals: hence the abundance of silver in England, and the purity of its early coinage. It was in this reign that London became the capital of England: hitherto Winchester had been the seat of royalty; but that city suffered so much during the civil wars in Stephen's reign, that it never recovered its former importance. At this time London with its suburbs contained thirteen large conventual churches and 126 parochial ones. Each trade had its distinct quarter for business, and every Friday a cattle-market was held in Smithfield. Ludgate was its boundary on the west, and the space between that barrier and Westminster was occupied by fields and gardens; Moorfields was a lake; the high ground of Islington and Pentonville was covered with rich harvests, and beyond was an extensive forest, where the citizens of London used to hunt the wild boar and other animals of the chase.

Richard I. (Cœur de Lion), A. D. 1189—1199.

10. Having made the necessary arrangements for the government of his continental dominions, this young monarch crossed over to England, and was crowned in the abbey of Westminster, with great ceremony and magnificence, on the 3d of September.

Richard and Philip Augustus of France had taken the cross at the same time, and proposed to raise the siege of Tyre, the only city then remaining in the hands of the Christians, and to recover Jerusalem, where the renowned Saladin had restored the mosques and worship of Mahomet. For such an expedition large sums of money were required, to raise which the king had recourse to various scandalous expedients. He sold his own estates and castles, the domains of the crown and of private individuals. A number of towns, built on the crown lands, redeemed themselves by an annual rent charge, and

became free boroughs. He conceded the county of Northumberland to the Bishop of Durham for 1000 pounds, and for the trifling sum of 10,000 marks renounced all feudal supremacy over the King of Scotland, and delivered up the fortresses that had been surrendered to Henry II. But his most fruitful source of revenue was a massacre of the Jews, which he tolerated, if he did not order.

11. PERSECUTION OF THE JEWS.—The fanatical and ignorant populace of the middle ages regarded the Israelitish race as an accursed people, whom it was lawful to insult and abuse. Yet to the Jews were they indebted for nearly all the comforts and luxuries of civilized life, they being the principal traffickers between the countries of Europe and Asia, and the bankers of all the Christian states. Their profits as money-lenders were enormous; and in England they had grown rich under the protection of the late king. At the accession of Philip to the throne of France, they had been banished from that country, and, fearful of a similar fate in England, they endeavoured to gain the favour of Richard by valuable presents. A royal proclamation had been issued forbidding their presence at the ceremonies of his coronation; but the delegates, hoping that their magnificent offerings would propitiate the king's good-will, ventured to approach the hall in which he was dining. The guards, however, drove them away, and the populace, easily excited, caught up the cry that Richard had ordered the Jews to be massacred, and their property to be seized. The mob immediately attacked their houses, killed the inmates, and then set fire to the buildings, after stripping them of every thing valuable. From London the contagion spread into the provinces: in Lincoln, Edmondsbury, Lynn, Stamford, and Norwich, the atrocities of the capital were renewed; while in the city of York they were greatly exceeded, and ended in a frightful catastrophe. The people began by murdering the wife and children of a Jew who had perished in London, and after pillaging his house, they burnt it to the ground. Another of the doomed race, forewarned of his danger, took refuge in the castle with his family and treasure, whither he was followed by about five hundred of his brethren, with their wives and children. The governor, who at first had cordially received these unhappy people, afterwards deserted them, and rousing the populace, laid regular siege to the fortress. The Jews offered a large ransom, but their proposal was rejected; and in their despair they burned or buried their

treasures, killed their wives and children, and then slaughtered each other. A few, however, remained, who still clung to existence, and who declared from the walls that if their lives were spared they would renounce their faith and receive Christian baptism; but though the conditions were accepted, the gates of the castle were no sooner opened than the mob rushed in and cruelly put them to death. The only punishment that followed the perpetration of such atrocities was the execution of three of the London ringleaders, and the deposition of the sheriff and governor of York. It is alleged that Richard was unwilling to punish his subjects for the sake of a detested people; nevertheless he took the Jews under his protection, and issued a proclamation forbidding any one to molest them in their persons or property.

12. THIRD CRUSADE.—After raising all the money he could, Richard departed for the Holy Land. At Midsummer 1190, he met Philip of France at Vezelai, on the borders of Burgundy, whence the combined army, numbering 100,000 men, marched to the coast. The two monarchs then separated for the purpose of meeting their respective fleets, and having put to sea, were both about the same time driven by stress of weather to take refuge in Messina in Sicily, where they were compelled to winter. Their sojourn here laid the foundation of those jealousies which afterwards rendered their enterprise abortive. After leaving the port of Messina, some of the English ships were driven on the coast of Cyprus and wrecked; upon which Isaac, the sovereign of the island, pillaged the vessels and cast the crews into prison. Richard, however, arrived soon after, and took ample vengeance. Having defeated Isaac, he confined him in a strong castle at Tripoli, established governors over the island, and taxed the inhabitants to the amount of one half of their movable property. He next celebrated his marriage with Berengaria, daughter of the King of Navarre, and then embarked with his fleet for Acre, which capitulated soon after his arrival. The fall of this important stronghold, which had resisted the efforts of the crusaders more than two years, was considered by the nations of Christendom as a precursor to the delivery of Jerusalem; but discord among the conquerors disappointed these expectations. Jealous of the great military reputation of the English king, Philip, pleading ill health, withdrew with his troops from the scene of action, and returned to Europe. Richard, thus left to his own resources, still maintained the

contest ; but although he inflicted a terrible defeat on the Saracens, captured many fortified places, and came within sight of the holy city, he was ultimately compelled by famine, disease, and desertion, to relinquish the enterprise and conclude a treaty with Saladin. In October 1192, he quitted the Holy Land, and proceeded in disguise through Styria and Germany. Near Vienna his thoughtless prodigality betrayed him, and he fell into the power of his deadliest enemy, Leopold duke of Austria, by whom he was confined in the castle of Tyernsteign. The Emperor Henry VI., however, claimed the prisoner, who was transferred to one of the imperial fortresses, and suffered a captivity of fourteen months duration. He at last purchased his liberty by the payment of an immense ransom, and returning to England, after an absence of more than four years, was received by his subjects with transports of joy.

13. At his departure for the crusade, Richard had confided the care of his kingdom to William of Longchamp, bishop of Ely, with the title of chancellor and grand-justiciary of England. Longchamp has been accused of exercising the duties of his office with great tyranny ; but though undoubtedly vain of his authority, he was faithful to the interests of his absent master. John, the king's brother, then Count of Moretain, was envious of the bishop's authority, and endeavoured to effect his ruin. In this he at length succeeded, and began to take steps for securing the crown. At the same time, Philip, who had returned to France, meditated the invasion of Richard's Norman dominions. The English king's captivity being favourable to their views, they did every thing in their power to render it perpetual ; but their treachery failed in its object, and Richard returned burning with revenge against his unnatural brother and his false ally.

Richard immediately marched against Nottingham Castle, the head-quarters of the disaffected, and which belonged to his brother John, who had escaped. The fortress surrendered, and a few days after, the king held a council within its walls, by which it was resolved that if John did not appear within forty days, his estates should be forfeited. At the beginning of the next year, Richard turned his arms against Philip. The French everywhere retired before the impetuous *Cœur de Lion*, and Prince John, losing heart, resolved to desert his allies and seek forgiveness from his injured brother. This new act of treachery he accompanied by an atrocious crime,—the murder of all the officers of the garrison of Evreux, whom

he had invited to an entertainment. At the intercession of his mother Eleanor, Richard was prevailed upon to take him once more into favour, saying, "I forgive him, and hope I shall as easily forget his injuries as he will forget my pardon." Philip, after being successively driven from the Norman cities he had captured, was forced to conclude a truce, which allowed the English king to turn his arms against the insurgents of Aquitaine. It was here that he met his death before an obscure fortress. Vidomar, count of Limoges, having discovered a treasure on his estate, sent a portion to Richard, who, however, demanded the whole, and to enforce his claim besieged the count's castle of Chaluz. The garrison offered to surrender if their lives were spared, but the king replied that he would take the place by storm, and hang every one of them upon the battlements. As he rode round the walls to see where the assault could best be made, he was recognised by a young man, Bertrand de Gurdun, who discharged an arrow and wounded him in the shoulder. The castle was soon after taken and its defenders executed, with the exception of Bertrand. Though not in itself dangerous, the wound was rendered mortal by the unskilfulness of the surgeon, and feeling his end approach, Richard ordered the archer into his presence, and sternly asked him why he had sought his life. "With your own hands," replied Gurdun, "you killed my father and my two brothers, and now I am content to die since I have avenged them and freed the world from an oppressor." It was one of the principles of the crusaders to perform acts of strange and peculiar generosity. The person who had slain the king, and acknowledged that he did so in revenge, was the last who could expect mercy. Richard, however, ordered him to be set at liberty and presented with a sum of money; but he was secretly detained, and flayed alive after the king's death. Richard expired on the 6th of April 1199, in the forty-second year of his age, and was buried at the feet of his father in the abbey of Fontevraud. He had reigned nearly ten years, not one of which was passed in England, and left no children to succeed him.

14. Though Richard spent little of his time in England, he nevertheless oppressed it through his ministers, and regarded it as an estate whence he could draw money at pleasure. Archbishop Hubert, his justiciary, declared that he had sent over to him in France in less than two years the enormous sum of eleven hundred thousand marks weight of silver; and

some idea of the value of this mass of metal may be formed by recollecting that at this period the hide or caracute of 100 acres was rented for twenty shillings; that an ox, a cow, and a draught horse were generally valued at four shillings each, a swine at twelve pence, and a sheep at ten pence.

Richard's character and person have been celebrated by a crowd of panegyrists, whose pictures have not always been coloured with truth and soberness. He possessed enormous muscular strength, which was of great importance at a time when kings engaged in personal conflict. No knight could surpass him in the tournament or in battle, no perils daunted him, and fortune generally favoured his most dangerous enterprises. But he was proud, cruel, and implacable, although occasionally frank and generous. By the fair sex he was esteemed a courteous knight, a tender and witty, if not a faithful troubadour. Several poems ascribed to him are still extant in the *Langue d'Oc*. The fine arts, particularly music, began to flourish during his reign, and curious pictures, models, and architectural drawings were imported from Italy, Greece, and Egypt, which prepared the way for the advancement of succeeding ages.

ROBIN HOOD.—The famous Robin Hood, the hero of many an old English ballad, lived in the reign of Richard, who is said to have visited the outlaw in Sherwood Forest,—a tradition which the great novelist of modern times has adopted in his tale of *Ivanhoe*. He was the most distinguished of those freebooters whom the tyranny of the Norman kings had driven to band together in the large forests, and we are told that he had a hundred archers under his command. He was the especial favourite of the common people, on account of his skill in archery, his humanity, and his practice of sparing the goods of the poor, and even supplying their necessities out of the spoils of the rich. It has, however, been believed that this leader had higher and more important claims on the affections of the people, that he was a Saxon chief of noble family, who kept up the old national spirit among his followers, and assembled them not for robbery, but to resist the oppressions of the Normans. In this view, instead of being considered a freebooter, he is represented as a patriot like Alfred or Wallace.

John, A. D. 1199—1216.

15. JOHN, surnamed Lackland, ascended the vacant throne.

He had many of his brother's vices, but none of his redeeming qualities. He was the fourth son of Henry II., and consequently not the heir according to the modern principles of hereditary descent, by which the crown would have devolved on Prince Arthur, son of Geoffrey, Henry's third son, and duke of Brittany.

Geoffrey, who had married Constance, duchess of Brittany, and daughter of Conan, the last of the Breton dukes, was killed in a tourney at the court of France, leaving one daughter and a pregnant wife. Geoffrey had become very popular among the Bretons, and on his posthumous offspring they founded a hope of independence. The joy of the people when Constance gave birth to a boy was excessive: prayers for his safety were offered up in every church, and the images of the saints were decorated with flowers. His grandfather, Henry II., desired to give his own name to Geoffrey's heir; but the Breton lords preferred that of Arthur.

Richard Cœur de Lion had entertained a great affection for his nephew Arthur, and even declared him heir to the throne. But on his return from Palestine, he cast an avaricious eye on his nephew's possessions, and endeavoured to get the young duke into his hands. After many adventures, Arthur took refuge at the court of Philip Augustus, where he was residing at the time of Richard's death. Queen Eleanor had experienced little difficulty in persuading Cœur de Lion to adopt John as his heir. She herself transferred to him the principalities of Aquitaine and Poitou, and repaired in person to these states to engage the barons and prelates to swear fidelity to him. Normandy also submitted to his authority; but Anjou, Maine, and Touraine declared for Arthur. John, who was in Normandy when Richard died, hastily crossed to England, where the people were divided between Arthur and himself. At a grand council held in Northampton, John was acknowledged sovereign of England on condition of his respecting the laws and privileges of the country. Immediately after this formal recognition, the king returned to the continent to punish the Angevines and others for their disaffection. Philip also had taken up arms to defend Arthur, whose interests, however, he did not scruple to sacrifice to his own advantage. At last the young prince fell into the hands of his uncle, by whom he was confined in the strong castle of Falaise, while, of two hundred knights who were taken prisoners at the same time, twenty-two were sent to Corfe Castle

in Dorsetshire, and starved to death. The unfortunate Arthur was soon afterwards removed from Falaise to the castle of Rouen, and there basely murdered. This atrocity excited such horror among all classes, that the authority of the king was endangered; but it was particularly in Brittany, where the young prince had been born and brought up, that it threatened disastrous consequences to the cause of John. The prelates and barons of that principality declared war against him, and adopted the infant Alice, Arthur's sister, as their sovereign. At the same time they sent a deputation to the French monarch, who eagerly seized the opportunity of humiliating a rival, and summoned him to appear before the nobles of France, as vassal of the French crown, to answer a charge of murder brought against him by the knights of Brittany and Anjou. John refused to appear, and was condemned by default to lose all property he held in fief of the King of France. In pursuance of this sentence, his continental dominions were immediately attacked by the French and Bretons, who, in a short time, wrested from him Normandy, Anjou, Maine, Touraine, Poitou, and Berry. When these reverses were announced to him, he merely replied, "Let them go on; I shall recover in a day more than they can take from me in a year."

16. DISPUTE WITH THE POPE.—While he was thus losing his possessions on the continent, alienating the people by his exactions, the barons by his cowardice, and all England by the licentiousness of his private life and by the dishonour he brought upon the noblest families, he quarrelled with the church, at the head of which was Innocent III. A double election to the primacy having been made by the monks of Canterbury, the pope quashed the election and appointed the virtuous Stephen Langton. But John protested against this nomination; and insisting that his favourite, the Bishop of Norwich, should have the vacant see, he expelled the monks, and by his violence drew upon himself an ecclesiastical censure. In March 1208, Innocent laid the whole kingdom under an interdict; and in the following year John was formally excommunicated. All the churches were closed; no sound of bells was heard summoning the faithful to prayers; the dead were buried in silence and in unconsecrated ground; the statues and pictures of the saints were covered with black cloth, and their relics laid upon ashes; no religious ceremonies were performed, save baptism to infants

and the sacrament to the dying. The king took no notice of the sentence, although all England was plunged into mourning, but became more violent against the clergy, and took every precaution to prevent the publication of the pope's bulla. But when Innocent, laying aside all half-measures, declared that John had forfeited his crown, and freeing his subjects from their allegiance, proclaimed a crusade against him, and gave his kingdom to Philip Augustus, with a commission to execute the sentence of the church, the craven monarch, alarmed at the preparations of the French king and the disaffection of his own barons, listened to the propositions of the legate Pandulf, and in 1213 submitted to the pope. He promised to recognise Langton as archbishop of Canterbury, to restore to the expelled monks their property and honours, and, finally, he did homage to the pope for his crown, declaring that he held it as a fief of the holy see, and engaging to pay an annual tribute of 1000 marks of silver.

On these terms, the interdict and excommunication were taken off, and the King of France was forbidden to attack a kingdom now become a fief of the church. Philip had already made great preparations for the invasion of England, and was therefore not disposed to forego the enterprise; but the total destruction of his navy by an English fleet under the Earl of Salisbury rendered it impossible for him to proceed. Elated by his success, John now attempted to invade France, having previously entered into an alliance with Otho, the emperor of Germany, and Ferrand, count of Flanders. He was, however, compelled to return with disgrace; and after the signal
 A.D. } defeat of his allies at Bouvines, he solicited and obtained
 1214. } a truce for five years.

17. THE GREAT CHARTER.—Many circumstances concurred to increase John's unpopularity; and at length the discontent of the nation became so great, that an extensive coalition of barons and prelates was formed against him; and in order to save his crown, he was compelled to accept the Great Charter, commonly known by its Latin name of Magna
 12th June }
 1215. } Charta, and often described as the foundation of English liberty. He did not sign it without a struggle, exclaiming with his usual oath: "Why do they not demand my crown also? By God's teeth, I will not grant them liberties which will make me a slave."

The rights secured to the people by the great charter were not entirely novel privileges extorted from a king entitled to

refuse them. The whole transaction might rather be considered a solemn bargain to preserve old rights enjoyed by the people. There had been more than one charter of liberties obtained from previous sovereigns, but they were not so complete and full as the charter of King John. It seems to have been intended in a great measure to recall Saxon usages, which the Norman kings had invaded; for the people and even the Norman barons themselves used to demand the restoration of the good old Saxon laws. A considerable part of the great charter refers to feudal exactions, so long forgotten that we cannot at this day fully appreciate the hardships and misery they occasioned. The king not only became bound to abstain from harassing his barons by these exactions, but the barons themselves were prohibited from being extortionate towards their own vassals. It was at that time of great moment to the humbler classes of people engaged in trade and handicraft occupations, that they should be able to congregate in cities where they were protected. They walled themselves round and built fortifications, and thus they were able to verify the precept, that union is strength; for a great baron with his thousand followers was not more powerful than a thousand of these burghers in their walled city, so long as they were of one mind and acted together. The king granted them occasionally charters, with particular privileges of trade, and laws for selecting officers to manage their affairs and rule over them. These were called the franchises of the towns, and were the means by which they were kept in compact masses. One of the provisions of the great charter prohibited these franchises from being interfered with, and thus gave the citizens a means of protecting themselves from the feudal barons and even from the king. By another important provision of the great charter, foreign merchants were encouraged by protection to settle in the country.

18. But the most important feature in this celebrated document was one which simply said, that no freeman shall be imprisoned or deprived of his property or liberty, or be outlawed or exiled or otherwise injured, or be in any way judged of, unless by the decision of his peers or by the law of the land. The practical meaning of this was, that the law should be fixed and permanent, that it should be the same to every individual, and that neither the king nor any other person should be entitled to take a man's property or his liberty, unless there was a law authorizing him to do so. It was the

particular duty of the judges, who were appointed for that purpose, to decide what was law. Sometimes, though no one doubted what the law was, yet it might be doubtful whether a person who was charged with breaking it had actually broken it, so as to deserve punishment. Such a question was to be decided "by judgment of his peers," that is to say, by the solemn opinion of men of his own rank in life—in other words, by a jury. It was thought unsafe to leave everything in the hands of the judges, lest they should become corrupt and subservient, and it was considered better to have the simple question, whether such or such a thing was done, decided by impartial persons chosen at the moment. The great charter was often violated, and as often did the barons and the people demand that it should be confirmed; and the eminent lawyer Sir Edward Coke mentions thirty-two occasions on which it was thus solemnly ratified by succeeding monarchs.

After signing the charter, with a firm resolution to violate its conditions on the first opportunity, John travelled about from place to place, shunning the presence of the barons, and seeking relief from his vexations in rapid change of scene. He obtained from the pope a dispensation from the oath he had taken, and also the excommunication of all those who remained under arms for the purpose of enforcing its observance. But no bishop in England could be found to promulgate the sentence, and John thereupon raised an army of French mercenaries, outcasts and freebooters, and ravaged the estates of the barons, who in self-defence invited into England Philip's eldest son Louis, who was married to John's niece. Louis willingly accepted the invitation, and having landed at Sandwich, took the castle of Rochester and marched on the capital. The campaign, however, soon began to languish, owing to the defection of many of the English barons, who viewed with jealousy the preference of the French prince for his own countrymen. At last John determined to fight one great battle for his crown; but while passing from Lynn into Lincolnshire by the seashore, he lost all his baggage, money, and jewels in the advancing tide. Fatigue and vexation at his irreparable loss brought on a fever, and with difficulty he reached Newark Castle, where he died on the 19th October 1216, in the forty-ninth year of his age and the seventeenth of his reign, having accumulated more odium on his head than all the Norman kings who had preceded him on the English throne.

19. COMMERCE AND THE ARTS.—The provision in favour of foreign merchants in the great charter has been already noticed. This was an important step in civilisation; but in the same reign we meet with the first mention of one of the greatest arms of modern commerce—letters of credit. In 1199, John engaged to repay in four instalments the sum of 2125 marks advanced by a company of Italian merchants to the Bishops of Anjou and Bangor on the faith of the letters of Richard I. During his reign he frequently employed such letters for the purpose of raising money. From there being no mention of interest, it was probably paid when the money was advanced.

Early in the 12th century, the Scottish merchants carried on a considerable trade with foreign parts; and from some of the burgh-laws, ascribed to David I., we gather that woollen cloth was already an article of manufacture, and that the northern harbours were much frequented by foreign fishermen. Some of the Scotch towns were very wealthy, as they contributed 6000 of the 15,000 marks which William the Lion bound himself to pay to John by the treaty of Berwick.

In both countries the fisheries were apparently productive. One fishery in Cheshire paid an annual rent of 1000 salmon, and the port of Sandwich yielded 40,000 herrings yearly to the monks of Canterbury. The present variety of fruits and vegetables was unknown; the poorer classes lived commonly on animal food, but it was frequently eaten alone, bread even of the coarsest quality being very rare. During many ages no improvement had taken place in the dwellings of the common people, but in the castles of the nobility, in the manor-houses of the gentry, and even in the houses of the wealthier citizens, the peculiarities of Norman architecture prevailed. The Norman castles were mere fortresses: everything was sacrificed to strength and solidity. They are generally great square towers, with thick walls and narrow round-headed windows. Chimneys were unknown; the hearth was placed in the middle of the hall, whence the smoke of the wood and turf ascended to blacken the roof, or escape through the unglazed windows. Carved wainscoting sometimes hid the lower portion of the walls; tapestried hangings were confined to the apartments of the females. The toll of the curfew announced the hour of rest, at sunset in summer, and at eight o'clock in winter; and when "life's fitful fever" was ended, a rude coffin received the lifeless corpse: even the mighty Conqueror

himself was laid in a shallow grave lined with masonry ; and when stone coffins were used they were merely sunk a little into the ground, so that the massive cover should be on a level with the surface.

20. **LEARNING AND EDUCATION.**—William the Conqueror loved and patronized letters, and gave no small countenance to the clergy, the only scholars of the times, by sending his son Henry Beauclerc to be educated in the monastery of Abingdon. Most of William's successors, who had themselves received a learned education, followed his example. Henry II. had been carefully instructed by his uncle the Earl of Gloucester, and three of his children, Henry, Geoffrey, and Richard, were noted for their literary accomplishments. The extent of their acquirements was probably trifling, but they had the good taste to protect learned men. Latin was the key to every kind of erudition, and the knowledge of this language was confined almost exclusively to churchmen, who indulged in the notion that it was a possession too valuable to be communicated to the laity, who were indeed looked upon as beings of an inferior species.

Schools and universities, however, greatly multiplied, and there were few religious houses without their seminaries, intended exclusively for the instruction of persons about to enter the church. Others, at the same time, were established in cities, and even in villages, for the instruction of the community at large ; among the most celebrated of which were three of a high order in the city of London, and one at Saint Albans. The university of Oxford, properly so called, dates from the reign of Richard I., and its earliest charters were granted by John ; the incorporation of Cambridge dates from 1231 ; prior to the twelfth century they had been little more than great schools, undistinguished by any rank or privileges above others in the kingdom. But the most ambitious of English students still resorted for the completion of their education to foreign universities, as Paris, Toledo, Padua, and Bologna. Their studies were divided into two classes : the first, or *Trivium*, comprehending grammar, rhetoric, and logic ; the second, or *Quadrivium*, including music, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy—all falling very short of what is meant by those terms in a modern system of education. Theology now began to be ranked as a science, and the scholastic logic became the universal instrument of thought and study.

Books were rare and of great value; yet every abbey had its library, and the monks were employed in copying the manuscripts. The library of Croydon monastery, which was burnt in 1091, contained 900 volumes. These were of parchment, for paper did not come into use until the twelfth century.

EXERCISES.

1. How did Henry acquire his continental dominions? What was the character of his government at its commencement? Give an account of the traditions about Thomas à Becket. How did his greatness originate?

2. What was Becket's principal object? What was the law in favour of the churchmen which Henry wished to abolish? Who opposed Becket's appointment as Archbishop of Canterbury? Describe his conduct after he became archbishop.

3. Mention an incident relating to the dispute about the clergy and the courts of law. How did Henry try to get the dispute settled? Give the name of the council where the rules subjecting the clergy to the civil courts were passed. What were the circumstances of Becket's death.

4. Was Ireland a country under one king? Describe its division among various leaders. What was the head of the clan called? How was he appointed? What was the method of succession to land there?

5. How did the pope acquire his authority in Ireland? What use did he make of it? Mention the kingdoms into which Ireland was divided. What was then the state of Ireland?

6. What Irish king appealed to Henry II., and what prompted him to do so? What was the result of the application? Whom did Strongbow marry?

7. What was the effect of Strongbow's success on the king? Describe Henry's expedition to Ireland. What part of the country agreed to yield to him, and what part refused?

8. What was the conduct of Henry's sons towards him? Give an account of the circumstances under which he died.

9. What were the chief imports to London during Henry's reign? What were the exports? What town had been formerly the capital? Mention some of the local peculiarities of London during Henry's reign.

10. When did Richard I. succeed to the crown? For what purpose did he desire money? What methods did he take for obtaining it?

11. What services did the Jews perform? How did the people feel towards them? Give an account of a remarkable instance of persecution.

12. With whom did Richard unite to carry on the crusades? What was the result of the alliance? What great stronghold did he take? Describe the circumstances of his captivity.

13. With whom did Richard leave the care of his kingdom? Who tried to seize the crown in his absence? Mention the circumstances in which the king's brother showed his treachery and cruelty. How was Richard killed?

14. What was Richard's character? Describe his qualifications. What celebrated freebooter flourished in his reign? Mention the different theories maintained about Robin Hood.

15. By what right did John claim the throne? What were the claims of his nephew Arthur? Give an account of Arthur's history and fate.

16. What was the origin of King John's dispute with the pope? What did Pope Innocent do to England? What was the nature of the pope's interdict? How was the interdict removed?

17. Mention the English and the Latin name of a document to which King

John gave his consent? What was its nature? Describe the franchises of the towns which it protected.

18. What was the most important feature of the great charter? Try to give an account of the reasons why trial by jury was so important and beneficial. Did King John sincerely intend to adhere to the great charter? Describe the circumstances of his death.

19. What improvements in commerce took place at this time? What was the state of trade in Scotland? Did the dwellings of the poor people improve as much as those of the rich? Describe the Norman castles.

20. Give an account of what William the Conqueror and his successors did for learning. When were the Universities of Cambridge and Oxford founded? What were the two classes into which the studies of young men were at that time divided?

CHAPTER XII.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF HENRY III. TO THE DEATH OF EDWARD II., A. D. 1216—1327.

Henry III.—Prince Louis returns to France—Rivalry of Peter des Roches and Hubert de Burgh—Parliament refuses Supplies—Solemn Confirmation of the Great Charter—Mad Parliament—Representative System—The Three Estates—Battle of Evesham—Edward I.—Attempt on his Life at Jaffa—Invasion of Wales—Scottish and French Wars—Oppressions of the Jews—Edward II.—Piers de Gaveston—The Ordainers—Gaveston's Execution—Unsuccessful War in Scotland—Progress of Edward Bruce in Ireland—Hugh Despenser—The Fate of Lancaster—Coalition against Edward—Death of the Despensers—Murder of the King at Berkeley Castle.

Henry III., A. D. 1216—1272.

1. At the death of John, the city of London and all the southern counties of England acknowledged the authority of Prince Louis of France; and in the north his cause, though not triumphant, was the more popular. The barons, however, who had not abandoned King John, adopted as their monarch his son, the youthful Henry of Winchester, then only ten years old. They were more conversant than Louis with the constitutional customs of the country, and knew that the people would not acknowledge Henry as their sovereign until he was crowned, and had taken the coronation oath. They accordingly led him to Gloucester, and in the cathedral of that city, in presence of the cardinal legate Gualo, and the bishops of Winchester, Exeter, and Bath, placed on the head of the royal child a circle of gold, a temporary substitute for the diadem which John had lost in the sands of the Wash, and

Oct. 23, 1216, } received from the new king an oath of fealty to the Holy See. In the following November, a great council was held at Bristol, where the Earl of Pembroke, the marshal of England, was chosen Protector, with the title of *Rector Regis et Regni* (governor of the king and kingdom). Here also the Great Charter was revised and confirmed, its articles being reduced from sixty-one to forty-two.

Prince Louis soon discovered that John's death was not so favourable to him as he had hoped. The youth and innocence of Henry III. captivated the affections of the English, while the arrogance of the French daily added to their unpopularity. The clergy, in obedience to Gualo's orders, read every Sunday and holiday the sentence of excommunication fulminated by the pope against the partisans of Louis; and in a brief space the king's party became so formidable that the French prince was compelled to raise the siege of Dover, which had been valiantly defended by Hubert de Burgh. The Tower of London, however, was surrendered to him not long after, and he reduced the castles of Hertford and Berkhamstead. In the following year, the French cause became desperate, and Louis, cooped up within the walls of London, was glad to propose terms of accommodation, by which an amnesty was granted to all the English barons who had espoused his interests, the prisoners on both sides were released, and the privileges of London, as well as of all other cities and boroughs, were confirmed. Louis then set sail for France with his foreign associates, but was so poor that he was obliged to borrow money from the citizens of London to defray the expenses of his journey (1217).

Peter des Roches, bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin by birth, and the high-justiciary Hubert de Burgh, had succeeded to the government of the kingdom on the death of Pembroke. These two ministers were jealous of each other; but the legate Pandulph held the balance between them. This cardinal succeeded in establishing peace on the Welsh frontier, in negotiating a treaty between England and Scotland, in marrying Joanna, Henry's eldest sister, to Alexander, king of Scotland, and in obtaining from the latter for De Burgh the hand of one of the Scottish princesses who had been delivered to John, and who had ever since remained in England. In 1223, Henry III. was declared of age, and Des Roches, baffled in all his attempts to overthrow his rival, concealed his discomfiture by a pilgrimage to the Holy Land.

2. The year 1225 is memorable in the history of the English constitution. As war had become necessary for the recovery of Guienne and Poitou, which Louis VIII. had overrun, a *parliament* was summoned at Westminster, from which De Burgh demanded the necessary supplies. At first the assembly would give nothing, but afterwards consented to grant a fifteenth of all movable property, on condition that Henry should ratify the two charters. With this the king immediately complied, and an army was sent into Guienne; but the papal legate interfered, and a truce for a year was entered into. In 1229, when the war was renewed, failure and disgrace attended the English army in France. Henry had wasted his time and his means in feasting and idle pageantry, and having again demanded supplies from his barons, they refused on the ground of his thoughtlessness and extravagance.

De Burgh's fall was now at hand. Though beloved by the people, the barons envied his power, and the king cast a longing eye on his wealth. His former rival Peter des Roches soon returned, and Hubert was accused of winning the king's affections by magic and enchantments. The fallen minister sought an asylum from his enemies at Merton Abbey, and afterwards in a church at Brentwood in Essex, where he took his station near the altar, with a crucifix in one hand and a consecrated wafer in the other. But his enemies, disregarding the sanctity of the place, dragged him forth, and having bound him naked upon a horse, they conveyed him to the Tower. As soon as this violation of the sanctuary was known, the bishops took the alarm, and the king was constrained to order De Burgh to be carried back to Brentwood church. To prevent his escape, however, the sheriff of the county was commanded to dig a deep trench round the building, and to enclose it with palisades; and after forty days' confinement, Hubert was obliged to surrender and stand his trial. He was sentenced to forfeit all his property, except what he inherited from his family, and to be confined in Dover Castle. About a year afterwards he escaped, and joined the insurgent nobles in Wales, who readily availed themselves of the co-operation of so able a man. At length peace was made between the king and the barons, when Hubert's estates were restored; but he never afterwards took a prominent part in the government.

3. Peter des Roches and his Poitevins were now triumph-

ant, while foreign adventurers crowded the court and filled every office of trust and importance. The barons again had recourse to arms; but dissension prevented their success. Edmund, archbishop of Canterbury, now took up the national cause, and threatened to excommunicate the king if he did not immediately banish Des Roches and his associates. Henry complied, and dismissed the foreigners; but having married Eleanor of Provence in 1236, fresh hordes followed her to England. One of her uncles became prime minister, another archbishop of Canterbury, and a third guardian of Earl Warrenne. Henry's four half-brothers were loaded with honours and riches; and his noble English wards were married to portionless Provençal damsels. But he was still poor, and could only obtain supplies by promising to dismiss every foreigner, and redress a long list of grievances. But no promises or oaths could bind him, and his unpopularity reached its height through the disgraceful defeats he suffered in 1242 in the French war. Parliament now refused any further supplies, and Henry resorted to the most tyrannical means of replenishing his exhausted treasury. At length, all other resources failing, he was compelled to assemble a parliament in 1253, when the barons insisted on a solemn confirmation of their liberties. They met in Westminster Hall, the bishops and abbots arrayed in their canonical robes, and each one holding a lighted taper in his hand. The Archbishop of Canterbury stood forth, and denounced excommunication against all who should infringe the charters of the kingdom, directly or indirectly, and, as he concluded, the surrounding prelates and dignitaries dashed their tapers on the ground, exclaiming, "May the soul of every one who incurs this sentence so stink and be extinguished in hell." To this the king added: "So help me God! I will keep these charters inviolate as I am a man, as I am a Christian, as I am a knight, as I am a king!" Even this solemn promise failed to bind him, and in 1258 the barons met in parliament in complete armour, and compelled the king to intrust the powers of government to a committee of their own body, with authority to extirpate abuses and enact good laws. The meeting was adjourned to Oxford, when, on the 11th of June, the "Mad Parliament," as it was called, appointed a committee of twenty-four; one half nominated by the barons, the other by the king. Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, was placed at the head of the new council. This nobleman was a for-

eigner, the youngest son of that Count de Montfort who led a crusade against the Albigenses. In right of his mother Amicia he had succeeded to the earldom of Leicester, and after his marriage with Eleanor, dowager countess of Pembroke, and sister of the king, he set himself in decided opposition to the encroachments of the foreign favourites. He was the most popular man of his day,—the nobles, clergy, and people alike regarding him with favour. This led to his banishment from court, but his popularity nevertheless increased as that of the king declined.

4. THE REPRESENTATIVE SYSTEM.—After nominating the committee of twenty-four, parliament enacted that four knights should be elected by the freeholders of each county to lay before parliament all breaches of law and justice that might occur, that a new sheriff should be annually chosen by the freeholders of each county, and that three sessions of parliament should be held regularly every year. But the jealousy of the barons, the intrigues of the court, and the rivalry between Leicester and the Earl of Gloucester, the king's brother, neutralized the benefits to be derived from these acts. The proceedings, however, were of the greatest importance in the history of the English constitution, as they may be called the origin of the representative system, which is the soul of our parliamentary legislation. Almost from the time of the Conqueror the great barons used to assemble to give advice to the monarch, and to offer him pecuniary aids; and it has been said that the smaller barons chose representatives even before the time of Henry III.; but it is to the barons under De Montfort that we owe the thorough establishment of the practice. It was under his authority, too, that the system was extended to the towns, and that the burgesses became a part of the legislative power, by choosing representatives to parliament.

Having been released by the pope from his oath to observe the provisions of Oxford, and taking advantage of a division among the barons, Henry endeavoured to free himself from their control, and escape from the fulfilment of his solemn obligations, which gave rise to a civil war in 1261. It was for a time suspended, while the differences of the contending parties were submitted to the arbitration of the French king in 1264; but it was soon renewed, and carried on with greater fury than ever, till the decisive victory gained by the barons at Lewes placed the king and his son entirely in their power.

By the treaty, called the *Mise of Lewes*, it was agreed on the day following the battle to submit the quarrel to peaceful arbitration. It was now that Leicester, in order to strengthen his party, summoned representatives from the principal cities and towns to aid in the deliberations of parliament, which had hitherto been composed solely of the spiritual and temporal lords. But the earl soon found enemies and rivals among his professed adherents, and the hopes of Henry's followers revived. The youthful Prince Edward, more brave and warlike than his father, escaped from captivity, and gained the battle of Evesham (1265), which proved fatal to the cause of Leicester, who was among the number of the slain. The royalist party gave no quarter, and besides common soldiers, 180 barons and knights in De Montfort's army were slaughtered without mercy. Some years after, the earl's sons, Simon and Guy, who had been banished from England, took a savage revenge for their father's death, by murdering Henry d'Almaine, the king's nephew, in a church at Viterbo, whither he had repaired to witness the election of a successor to Pope Clement IV. He fell at the foot of the altar covered with wounds, and the two brothers, after mutilating the body, dragged it to the door of the church, and made their escape. Leicester's party was not entirely crushed by the battle of Evesham; and more than two years elapsed before the country began to enjoy the blessings of tranquillity. Influenced by the advice of the pope, Henry proceeded in a spirit of mercy and moderation towards the vanquished, and in a parliament held at Marlborough adopted many of the provisions of the Earl of Leicester, and enacted other good laws. Prince Edward now took the cross, and departed for the Holy Land; and Henry continued to reign quietly until the 16th of November 1272, when he died at Westminster, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and the fifty-seventh of his reign.

Edward I. (Longshanks), A. D. 1272—1307.

5. EDWARD, surnamed Longshanks, was in Palestine at the time of his father's death, where his career was nearly cut short by the dagger of an assassin. One evening, as he was reclining on a couch in a loose dress, a messenger from the Emir of Jaffa was admitted into his apartment, who, as he knelt to present a letter with one hand, aimed a blow at the prince's heart with a dagger he had concealed in the other. Edward immediately threw himself upon the murderer, and

killed him with his own weapon. The wound, though poisoned, was successfully treated by an English surgeon; and tradition many years after ascribed its cure to the pious affection of his wife Eleanor, who at the risk of her own life sucked the venom from his breast.

Edward had already reached Italy on his way home before he received intelligence of his father's death; but instead of returning to England, he passed into Guienne, apparently to guard his continental possessions against the intrigues of Philip the French king. While here, he received a challenge from the Count of Chalons to meet him in a tournament, which the English king attended with a thousand knights, while the count was followed by two thousand. Suspicions of foul play entered the minds of the English champions, and the jousting was soon converted into a serious combat, in which many perished on both sides.

6. INVASION OF WALES.—Almost as soon as Edward reached England he invaded the still savage kingdom of Wales, where the British inhabitants, the remnants of those who had escaped the Saxon sword, had taken refuge. During the reign of the Norman kings, the Welsh frontiers were the scene of continual hostilities, which always ended in favour of the invaders, who gradually encroached upon the independent territory. The leaders of the victorious army built fortresses wherever they advanced, took hostages, and compelled the inhabitants to swear obedience to the English king; but the oaths, extorted by violence, were soon broken, and the Welsh besieged the castles of their conquerors,—a proceeding which always led to the death of the hostages. Such is the history of the Welsh campaigns, until Edward with the aid of his foreign troops, who were habituated to mountain warfare, penetrated into all the fastnesses of North Wales. In this struggle perished Lewellyn, prince of the northern principality, and whom his subjects regarded as predestined to restore their ancient liberties. There was an old prophecy of Merlin's, that a Prince of Wales would be crowned in London; and to verify this prediction, Edward ordered Lewellyn's head to be cut off and placed on the Tower, with a wreath of ivy around its brows. David endeavoured to renew the war; but falling into the hands of the English, he was cruelly executed, and his head placed on the battlements of the Tower beside that of his brother. Having now overcome all opposition, Edward built several castles along the coast to secure access

to the interior of the country by sea, and also cut down the forests that afforded shelter to the bands of insurgents. The Bards were put under the ban of the law, and no Welshman was permitted to hold any civil office in his own country; while the towns and fortresses were all garrisoned by English or foreign soldiers. Wales now became tributary to the English crown, until it was united to the kingdom of England, and made a principality for the eldest son of the reigning monarch.

In the regular course of events in England, Edward's ambitious attempts on the freedom of Scotland would now come to be considered, but it will be more interesting to see the whole of these events in one connected narrative, as a chapter of Scottish history.

7. FRENCH WAR.—Edward's attention was for a brief space directed to his possessions in France. The law at this period had so little power, and was so ineffectual in protecting property and persons, that the latter on the slightest provocation had recourse to brute force, and executed justice themselves. Some Norman and English sailors chancing to meet at a watering-place near Bayonne, a dispute arose as they were filling their casks, and an English seaman killed one of the Normans. His comrades, unable to obtain proper satisfaction from the government at Bayonne, seized an English ship, and hanged a merchant of that city whom they found on board. Reprisals soon followed, the mariners of the Cinque Ports, as the five harbours of England nearest to the coast of France were called, attacking every French vessel they met with. The narrow seas were soon covered with pirates: the Dutch united with the English; the Genoese and Flemings sided with the French. The fortune of war generally favoured the English, who on one occasion captured 240 vessels, and cruelly
A.D. 1293. } drowned in the sea the mariners who had escaped the
carnage.

Philip now thought it time to interfere, and to demand satisfaction from the King of England as Duke of Aquitaine. Edward was cited to appear at Paris and plead for his offences against his suzerain, and on his default, several of his cities and castles were seized by Philip's officers. The English monarch immediately prepared for war, and a powerful armament was assembled at Portsmouth; but before it set sail the Welsh broke out into a general insurrection. The warlike Edward immediately turned against the rebels, who made a brave resistance; but they were soon reduced to implore the

mercy of the conqueror, who condemned their leaders to a close imprisonment, and confiscated their property; and he was farther interrupted in his preparations by the war with Scotland.

8. But while he was thus occupied in seizing and consolidating the independent states of Britain, with a view to their becoming portions of one united and powerful kingdom, he did not neglect his continental possessions. His wars in Guienne, Wales, and Scotland, however, frequently exhausted his exchequer, and he unscrupulously oppressed his subjects by levies and taxes, contrary to the articles of the Great Charter. At length the clergy, barons, and merchants united in resisting his exactions; and, in 1297, when he had collected two armies, one for Guienne, and the other for Flanders, the Earls of Hereford and Norfolk declared they would not leave England. "You shall either go or hang," said the king. "I will neither go nor hang," replied Norfolk; and they both quitted him the same evening with 1500 lances. Edward was perpetually met in his ambitious schemes by the reluctance of parliament to supply him with the necessary funds, and by the determination which the barons and representatives showed to preserve their privilege of granting or refusing him money as they thought fit. He was thus induced to adopt many projects for obtaining supplies, and among others he did not forget the oppression of the Jews. He subjected that unfortunate race to fines and forfeitures, and imposed an annual capitation tax on every individual above the age of twelve. He levied imposts on the whole body at will, and raised considerable sums by granting leases of the emoluments to be wrung from them during a certain number of years. In 1279, an unusual quantity of light money being found in circulation, 280 Jews of both sexes, accused of clipping the coin, were hanged at London, besides those who suffered in the country. Eight years afterwards, the whole race were thrown into prison, where they remained till the king was propitiated by the payment of £12,000. At last he was prevailed upon by the importunities of his subjects to banish them from the kingdom, allowing them, however, to carry away their money and goods. Nearly 17,000 were thus compelled to leave the country before a certain day,—an event which the people celebrated as a national benefit. This king was marching with a great army against Scotland when he suddenly died at Carlisle on the 7th of July 1307.

Edward II. of Carnarvon, A. D. 1307—1327.

9. The able and warlike Edward I. was succeeded by his son of the same name, who, on his accession to the throne, was in the twenty-third year of his age. Edward II. inherited few of the good qualities of his father, and though of an agreeable person and cheerful disposition, already betrayed a weakness of character ill suited to the arduous duties which now devolved upon him. He permitted himself to be entirely governed by favourites, the chief of whom was a handsome young man named Piers Gaveston, the son of a Gascon knight who had been in the service of the late king. The two youths had grown up as companions, and the ascendancy that Gaveston acquired over the prince was so great, and was considered so dangerous, that he had been banished from the kingdom.

One of the first acts of the new king was to recall this minion, on whom he conferred the earldom of Cornwall, with many other dignities and large emoluments. By the advice of the favourite, the whole government was changed, and the dismissed officers were in many cases stripped of their property and thrown into prison. Gaveston was further exalted by receiving in marriage Edward's niece, Margaret de Clare, and by an extensive grant of land in Guenne. During the king's absence in France, whither he had gone to marry the Princess Isabella, daughter to Philip le Bel, and reputed to be the most beautiful woman in Europe, the favourite was left regent of the kingdom. At length his insolence and disgusting familiarity with his sovereign so displeased the barons that they procured his banishment, which Edward converted into an honourable exile by making him governor of Ireland.

After an absence of thirteen months, Gaveston was permitted to return, and Edward, who had been inconsolable at his loss, welcomed his arrival with feasting and revelry. Even the queen herself was neglected for this foreign adventurer, and in consequence conceived an insuperable aversion to her husband. The barons, however, who met in arms at Westminster (March 1310); compelled Edward to consent to the appointment of a council of peers, called *Ordainers*, who should have power to reform the state and the royal household. Their labours were ineffectual; but the parliament, which assembled in August 1311, recalled all grants made to the favourite, and insisted that he should be again banished on pain of death in case of return. Gaveston departed for Flan-

ders, but in less than two months was again in England. Further forbearance the barons considered would be criminal; and when the favourite fell into their hands at the capitulation of Scarborough Castle, they hurried him away to Warwick. While the council were deliberating on what should be done with the unhappy man, a voice from the body of the hall called out: "You have caught the fox; if you let him go, you will have to hunt him again." This remark sealed his doom, and he was immediately hurried away to Blacklow Hill, a small eminence about two miles from Warwick Castle, where he was beheaded in presence of the Earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Surrey.

10. Edward was struck to the heart by the murder of his favourite, and vowed revenge. For six months he was in arms against the barons; but no battle took place, and a temporary reconciliation was effected, which afterwards received the sanction of parliament. In order to retrieve his character, which had suffered from the reverses experienced during his hitherto inglorious reign, he now took the field in earnest, and marched against the Scots, who were sweeping away the last vestiges of English authority.

While Robert Bruce, as we shall presently have to tell, was establishing the liberties of Scotland, his enthusiastic brother was bent on winning the crown of Ireland. With 6000 men Edward Bruce landed in the province of Ulster; and after several successes was crowned king at Carrickfergus on the 2d of May 1316. Robert himself went to his brother's aid, and their united forces threatened Dublin and Limerick. In October 1318, Edward, who had reigned in full and undisputed sovereignty over the northern portion of the island, was killed in battle against the English at Fagher, near Dundalk.

In 1319, the English king made another attempt to reduce Scotland, but his progress was arrested at Berwick, on which he could make no impression. Meanwhile the Scots invaded England, and advanced nearly to York, ravaging the country with unsparing fury. A truce for two years, concluded in December 1319, at length put a stop to hostilities between the two countries, but only for a short time, for Edward again unsuccessfully invaded Scotland, and Bruce retaliated on England.

After Gaveston's death, Edward placed his affections on the amiable and accomplished Hugh Despenser, an Englishman of ancient family. Even this latter quality did not save him

from unpopularity. He had married the daughter of the late Earl of Gloucester, and been put in possession of his immense estates. The barons rose in arms, and, under the guidance of the Earl of Lancaster, accused the Despensers, father and son, of usurping the royal power, and of estranging the king from his nobles; upon which the parliament pronounced a sentence of banishment against both. Suddenly the position of the contending parties changed. The favourite returned after an exile of two months, encouraged by the king's boldness in hanging twelve knights of the opposite faction. Lancaster now withdrew to the north, and entered into communication with the Scots,—a step which lowered him greatly in the estimation of the people. He was soon afterwards compelled to surrender, and being condemned as a traitor, was beheaded on an eminence near Pontefract. Of his partisans, twenty-nine were executed, and their estates confiscated. The attainders passed upon the Despensers were reversed; the father was created Earl of Winchester, and received liberal compensation for his losses. The son was again received as the favourite of his sovereign; but instead of profiting by the fate of Gaveston, he gloried in following his example, and prepared the way for his own murder and that of the king.

11. Charles le Bel, brother to the English queen, now occupied the throne of France, and being at variance with Edward, had overrun a portion of the English territories on the continent. Under pretence of propitiating the French king, Isabella repaired to France, and concluded a dishonourable treaty, by which Edward agreed to do homage for his continental possessions. He was afterwards persuaded to cede Guienne and Poitou to the Prince of Wales, who was then to be allowed to do homage instead of his father.

Isabella's visit to France was the first act of a terrible tragedy. To all entreaties for her return she replied by the most bitter accusations against her husband, and an open defiance of his authority. But there were attractions at the court of France that rendered her deaf to the voice of reason and of duty. Lord Mortimer, the head of the Lancastrian party, was a handsome and gallant knight; Isabella was still young and beautiful; and rumour whispered that their intimacy exceeded the bounds of political friendship. Troops were soon raised in the cause of the fair queen against her rival in the king's affections. In September 1326, she landed in Suffolk with a little army, and was hailed as the deliverer of the

kingdom. Wife, son, brothers, cousin, were all in hostile array against the unfortunate Edward. The elder Despenser threw himself into Bristol; but the citizens compelled him to surrender as soon as the queen appeared under their walls. He was tried, and condemned to die the death of a traitor: after his bowels were torn out, his body was hung upon a gibbet during four days, and then cut to pieces and thrown to the dogs.

The king and his favourite fled from place to place: at length Hugh was captured in South Wales, and Edward immediately after surrendered to his pursuer, who was his own cousin, and brother to the late Earl of Lancaster. The favourite was dragged to Hereford, and there after a mock trial hanged upon a gallows fifty feet high.

Early in January 1327, Edward II. was formally deposed by the parliament; and his son, then in the fourteenth year of his age, was crowned at Westminster on the 29th of the same month. The dethroned sovereign was secretly transferred from one prison to another, and at last lodged in Berkeley Castle, whose inmates were alarmed during a dark night in September by shrieks of anguish proceeding from his apartment. On the following day, the body of the king, who had been murdered in the most horrible manner, was exposed to public view. It bore no outward marks of violence, but the fearful distortion of the countenance showed how acute had been the suffering of the unhappy monarch. No investigation was made into the cause of his death, which his keepers said had happened suddenly during the night, and he was privately buried in the abbey church of St Peter at Gloucester.

EXERCISES.

1. How far was the authority of Louis sustained? What method was taken to secure the crown to the young Prince Henry? Describe the way in which the power of Louis came to an end. What did the legate Pandolph accomplish?

2. What happened in the year 1225? Describe the power which parliament held over an extravagant king. Relate the circumstances attending the fall of De Burgh.

3. What foreigner became unpopular at this time? What brought many foreigners over? What was the effect of this on the king? Describe the ceremony which took place in Westminster Hall. Who was Simon de Montfort? What were the provisions of Oxford?

4. Describe the beginning of the representative system. What made the barons again make war against the king? What was the Mise of Lewes? What was De Montfort's fate?

5. What was the surname of Edward I.? What happened to him in Palestine? Describe the meeting with the Count of Chalons.

6. What territory did Edward first invade? What method did he take to keep Wales in subjection? How did he fulfil a prophecy?

7. Describe an incident which produced a war with France. How did other nations side in it? How was the army intended for France employed?

8. Tell how parliament checked Edward in his ambitious schemes. What plans did he adopt to raise money? What was the fate of the Jews?

9. What was the character of Edward II.? Who exercised undue influence over him? What effect had this upon the people? What was the fate of Gaveston?

10. How did Edward take the death of his favourite? Who invaded Ireland? Who succeeded Gaveston as favourite? What was the fate of Lancaster?

11. Who concluded a treaty with France? What coalition was formed against Edward? What was the fate of the Despensers? Describe the circumstances that are known as to Edward's death.

CHAPTER XIII.

SCOTLAND FROM THE ARRIVAL OF THE NORMANS TO THE END OF THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, A. D. 1066—1314.

Kingdom of Scotland—Homage—Malcolm III.—William the Lion—Alexander III.—The Invasion of Haco—Battle of Largs—The Maiden of Norway—Disputes on the Succession to the Crown—Baliol and Bruce—Relations between People of England and Scotland—Norman Aristocracy—Baliol asserts his Independence—William Wallace—The Defeat at Falkirk—Robert Bruce—Victory of Bannockburn—Effect of this unnatural War.

1. AT the time of the Norman conquest, Malcolm III., called Canmore, was king of Scotland; not indeed of the exact district which now bears that name, but of all the country north of the Forth and Clyde, with a tract on the west stretching into Cumberland. The other portions formed part of the earldom of Northumberland. Edgar Atheling having fled to Scotland in 1068, Malcolm married his elder sister, and two years after, entering England through Cumberland, he ravaged the western parts of Durham and York, and carried the young men and women back to Scotland, where they were made slaves. William I. retaliated in 1072, and wasted the country as far as the Tay, until at Abernethy Malcolm agreed to give hostages and do homage, not for his whole kingdom, but for territories annexed to that kingdom, and situate in England. Such feudal homage was not unusual between crowned heads: thus we have seen that John, as Duke of Normandy, acknowledged the King of France as his feudal

superior, and his refusal to appear before his lord paramount, touching the death of Prince Arthur, cost him that province.

During the reign of Rufus, Malcolm again invaded Northumberland, and fell in a skirmish before Alnwick Castle. Under this monarch the connexion between the northern and southern portions of the island became closer, the superior civilisation brought to England by the Normans penetrated through Scotland, and as the Scots had been like the inhabitants of South Britain in their barbarism, so they still continued to resemble them. Many of the Norman and Saxon malcontents of England were received at Malcolm's court, and the learned and pious Queen Margaret encouraged commerce, particularly in articles of luxury. Malcolm is said to have made great innovations in the constitution, assimilating it in some degree to the forms and usages of England; but the more we investigate, the more we find that the original laws and institutions of the Scots resembled those of their southern neighbours. Many changes occurred in the succession until
 A.D. } the reign of David I., who, although defeated at the
 1124 } battle of the Standard, returned not ingloriously into Scotland. He promoted the civilisation of his country, particularly by the foundation of religious houses, at that time almost the only sources of knowledge and the liberal arts.

Malcolm IV., surnamed the Maiden, a child in the twelfth
 A.D. } year of his age, now ascended the throne, and his reign
 1154 } of twelve years appears to have been one uninterrupted series of rebellions. The reign of William the Lion, his brother and successor, is remarkable for a contest with the
 A.D. } papal court, respecting the nomination of a bishop to
 1172 } the see of St Andrews. The chapter elected an Englishman of distinguished learning, named John Scot; the king appointed his chaplain to the vacancy. Eventually William's nominee succeeded to the bishopric.

William was somewhat unfortunate in his endeavours to secure the independence of his country. After a fruitless attempt to obtain the restitution of Northumberland from Henry II., he invaded that province, but being made prisoner, he was carried to Normandy, and did not recover his liberty until he consented to do homage to the English monarch, whose successor, however, willingly renounced the superiority for the sum of 10,000 marks.

2. After the death of John of England, Alexander II., the king of Scots, continued his co-operation with Prince Louis,

and drew upon himself the excommunication of the legate Gualo; but when the French prince withdrew from England, Alexander, who was marching into that country, became reconciled with the pope and Henry III. In 1217, he was absolved by Gualo's delegates at Tweedmouth, doing homage at the same time for the earldom of Huntingdon and other possessions in England. Four years later, he married Henry's eldest sister, the Princess Joan, and a long period of uninterrupted peace ensued between the two countries. This tranquillity was shaken by the death of Joan in 1238, and Alexander's marriage in the following year with Mary, daughter of Ingelram de Couci, a great lord of Picardy, whose family had been distinguished for its opposition to English interests. In 1244, Henry, having arranged his plans, declared war against Alexander, and assembled a large army at Newcastle. A number of troops sent by John de Couci to the assistance of his brother-in-law were intercepted, and the English king had prevailed upon several Irish chiefs to effect a diversion in his favour by landing on the Scottish coast. The country prepared for a vigorous resistance, but actual hostilities were prevented by a peace concluded at Newcastle in the month of August, when Alexander agreed always to bear good faith and love towards his liege lord Henry of England, and never to make an alliance with the enemies of Henry or his heirs.

Alexander II., who died in 1249, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign, was a strenuous defender of the independence of the national church, without, however, doing much to aggrandize it. He founded eight monasteries for the Dominicans, or Black Friars, considering probably that the mendicant orders would be the cheapest ecclesiastics. His successor was Alexander III., who in 1251 was married at York to the Princess Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry III. On this occasion Alexander did homage for his English possessions, but eluded Henry's claim to a similar act of submission for Scotland. The early years of this reign were little else than a series of struggles between adverse factions contending for the regency.

3. Alexander III. had not long taken the management of affairs into his own hands when Haco, king of Norway, invaded Scotland. He had undertaken this expedition to punish the Earl of Ross and other chieftains who had committed the most savage excesses in the Western Isles, which were

under the dominion of Norway. After compelling the inhabitants of the Orkneys and of the adjacent mainland to supply his fleet with provisions, and pay tribute, Haco, dividing his fleet of 160 sail, sent one powerful squadron to ravage Cantire, and another to make a descent on the Isle of Bute, while he with the main body anchored in the Frith of Clyde. At first the Norwegians gained some trifling advantages, but the elements seemed to conspire against them, and many of their ships were wrecked in a tempest. Haco, having collected his shattered vessels near the village of Largs, landed a strong force, which the Scots attacked and defeated with great slaughter. He then retired to the Orkneys, where he died; and a peace was concluded after a protracted negotiation, by which the sovereignty of the Hebrides and the Isle of Man was ceded by Norway to Scotland.

In 1281, Eric, king of Norway, married Alexander's daughter, the Princess Margaret, who died in 1283, leaving only an infant daughter, "the Maiden of Norway," who in the following year, by the decease of all her grandfather's children, became the direct heir to the Scottish crown. In 1286, Alexander was killed by the fall of his horse over a high cliff, now known as King's Wood End, between Kinghorn and Burntisland, in Fifeshire. A regency was immediately appointed; but plots were soon afterwards laid to set aside the infant Margaret, and place Robert de Bruce on the vacant throne. Bruce was the son of Isabella, one of the daughters of David, earl of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. In 1286, it was agreed at a meeting held in Turnberry Castle, Ayrshire, the seat of Bruce's son, Robert, earl of Carrick in his wife's right, to adhere to one another on all occasions, and to him who should gain the throne as rightful heir of the late monarch. Their intention appears to have been to obtain the crown for Bruce, and to secure this they were prepared to acknowledge Edward I. as lord paramount of Scotland.

In the year 1289, Eric communicated with the King of England on the affairs of his daughter, and at Edward's request the Scottish regency sent three of its members to attend a solemn deliberation to be held at Salisbury, where it was agreed that the infant princess should be brought to England, Edward engaging to send her into Scotland, whenever order was so established in that country that she might live there in security. He also had procured a dispensation from the pope

for her marriage to her cousin, his eldest son ; an alliance exceedingly gratifying to the Scottish Estates. But all these
A.D. } arrangements fell to the ground by the death of Mar-
1290. } garet on her way to Britain.

4. COMPETITORS FOR THE CROWN.—The news of the youthful queen's decease spread grief and consternation throughout Scotland. A remarkable fatality had pursued the Scottish royal family for more than a century ; and although William the Lion and his posterity had contracted no fewer than ten marriages, not one descendant of that king was now in existence. Numerous competitors, it was foreseen, would lay claim to the vacant throne ; and to prevent a long and fierce controversy, the Estates of Scotland solicited the advice and mediation of Edward. A conference accordingly took place, on the 10th of May 1291, at Norham, on the southern side of the Tweed, in which the English king distinctly insisted on the recognition of his title as superior and lord paramount of Scotland, before any other business could be proceeded with. His demand not being conceded, the meeting was adjourned for a month, when the same parties again assembled on a green called Holywell Haugh, within the Scottish territory. Here ten competitors appeared, all of whom, except Baliol, Bruce, and Hastings, subsequently withdrew their pretensions. These founded their claims on their descent from the three daughters of David, earl of Huntingdon, younger brother of William the Lion. Margaret, the eldest, married Alan of Galloway, whose eldest daughter, Devergoil, became the wife of John de Baliol of Bernard Castle, to whom she bore a son, John Baliol. The second daughter, Isabella, married Robert Bruce, by whom she had a son, Robert Bruce, earl of Carrick in right of his wife. Ada, the third daughter, was married to Henry Hastings, from which union proceeded John Hastings. According to the modern rules of succession, Baliol's claims were unquestionable ; the descendants of the eldest daughter, however remote, being preferred to those of the younger, however near. Baliol was the grandson of David's eldest daughter ; Bruce and Hastings were the sons of his younger daughters. But the modern rules of succession were then only in a state of formation, and it was not unnatural that a grandson, though by a younger daughter, should be considered nearer than a great-grandson by an elder. The proceedings at Holywell Haugh were opened by Bruce's acknowledgment of Edward as " Lord Paramount of Scotland," and all the

other competitors followed his example. It was then agreed that a commission of 104 persons, named by Edward, Baliol, and Bruce, should be appointed to examine into the case, and report to Edward; and the regents of Scotland soon afterwards surrendered the kingdom into Edward's hands, the governors of the castles doing the same with their respective trusts. Edward then made a progress into Scotland, visiting Edinburgh, St Andrews, Linlithgow, and Stirling, calling upon persons of every rank to sign the rolls of homage. The final decision of the cause did not take place till the 17th of November 1292, when the English sovereign, in the great hall of Berwick castle, decided "that John Baliol should have seisin of the kingdom of Scotland;" Edward, now as on previous occasions, protesting "that the judgment he had thus given should not impair his claim to the *property* of Scotland." On the 19th, the regents and keepers of castles were ordered to surrender their trusts to the new king, and the great seal used by the regency was broken, and the fragments were deposited in the treasury of England, "in testimony to future ages of England's right of superiority over Scotland." Baliol, the next day, swore fealty to Edward at Norham, and on the 30th was solemnly crowned at Scone. Before the end of the year he passed into England and did homage for his kingdom at Newcastle.

5. Some explanations are necessary that it may be understood how readily not only the competitors for the crown, but many other nobles belonging to Scotland, were prepared to sell their country to England. The two nations were not at that time, as they afterwards became, accustomed to look upon each other as natural enemies who had been at war for centuries. Under the Saxon system, there was sometimes more or less of the country of Scotland attached to the whole or a part of England, and the people north of the Tweed were no more strangers to their neighbours on the other side, than these were to the people south of the Humber. When the Normans came they were not liked either by the Saxons or the Scots, but this only united the original inhabitants of both countries the more closely together, in so far that, as we have seen before, the Scots readily joined the Saxons when they rose against the Normans. These people, who were ambitious and aggrandizing, and who were likewise accomplished and courtly, became favourites of the Scottish kings, and obtained large grants of land from them, so that they rose, just as in England,

ting all the garrison and many of the inhabitants to the
rd. Earl Warenne next invested the castle of Dunbar, the
rison of which promised to surrender if not relieved within
as days. On the third morning the Scottish army appeared,
y to be completely routed with a loss of 10,000 men. In
space of two months all the principal fortresses of the
gdom were in Edward's hand, and Baliol was compelled
July } to lay aside his kingly state. In the following month,
} a parliament was held at Berwick, where most of the
etish clergy and laity took the usual oaths of fealty, and
a government of the conquered country was settled. The
feited estates of the clergy were restored, and the various
ndictions of the country were for the most part left in the
as hands as before. English officers, however, were placed
the principal castles in the southern part of the kingdom,
ed over certain districts. The supreme authority was in-
usted to John de Warenne, earl of Surrey, as governor, to
ugh de Cressingham as treasurer, and to William Ormesby
as justiciary.

7. WALLACE.—But the Scottish nation, though conquered,
was not subdued, and only waited a favourable opportunity for
again raising the standard of independence. Their deliverer ap-
peared in the person of the celebrated popular leader William
Wallace. Having slain an Englishman who had insulted him,
he fled into the wilds, where he gathered round him a numerous
band of outlaws like himself. His various attacks were so suc-
cessful, that he was soon looked upon as the national champion.
He was now joined by Sir William Douglas at the head of his
vassals, and the two chiefs conceived the design of capturing
Ormesby, the English justiciary, at Scone, the seat of the
government. Ormesby escaped, but his treasures and many
prisoners fell into the hands of the insurgents. Other leaders
now united with Wallace, the chief of whom were Robert
Wisheart, bishop of Glasgow, with Sir Andrew Moray of
Bothwell, the Steward of Scotland and his brother, Alexander
Lindesay, and Sir Richard Lundin. To these was added shortly
after the youthful Robert Bruce, the grandson of him who had
been Baliol's rival for the crown. Edward took immediate
steps to crush this revolt against his power, and a numerous
army was sent into Scotland, which came up with the insur-
gents near Irvine in Ayrshire. Jealousy and disunion, how-
ever, had already broken out in the Scottish camp, and most
of the leaders, after a short negotiation, laid down their arms

and submitted to the authority of Edward; while Wallace
 9th July } withdrew to the north with a faithful and still num-
 1297. } erous force with which he drove the English from the
 castles of Brechin, Forfar, and Montrose. While besieging
 the castle of Dundee, he was informed that the English were
 marching upon Stirling, and he immediately hastened to in-
 tercept them. By forced marches he succeeded in reaching
 the neighbourhood of that town before they arrived, and took
 up a favourable position. The Earl of Surrey, who still com-
 manded Edward's army, soon made his appearance on the op-
 posite bank of the river Forth, and seeing how advantageously
 the Scots were posted, thought it prudent to offer terms of
 accommodation. These were indignantly rejected, and next
 morning the English began to cross the river. The bridge
 was a narrow wooden structure, and Wallace, waiting till
 about a half had passed over, took possession of its extremity,
 rushed upon them, and cut them to pieces before they had time
 to form. The victory was complete: Scotland was again free,
 and Wallace boldly invaded England, and during some time
 maintained his army in Cumberland.

8. In the ensuing spring, Edward, burning with rage against
 those whom he called "revolted subjects and traitors," ad-
 vanced from York with an immense army. Want of provisions
 and mutiny had nearly proved fatal to the English host, when
 information was received that the Scottish army lay encamped
 in Falkirk wood. Although two of the king's ribs were broken
 by a kick from his horse, which stood beside him as he lay on
 the bare ground, he advanced against the enemy. The fortune
 22d July } of the day turned against the Scots, who were defeated,
 1298. } with the loss, it is said, of 15,000 men. The foot
 manfully resisted; but the horse, either dismayed by the
 inferiority of their numbers, or from treason on the part of
 their officers, fled without striking a blow. Wallace retreated
 to Stirling, and the victors devastated the country with fire
 and sword.

The great hero of Scotland now almost entirely disappears
 from the page of history. After the battle of Falkirk he
 seems to have carried on a kind of *guerilla* warfare against
 the English. At length he was betrayed to his enemies, and
 imprisoned in the castle of Dumbarton, then held by Sir John
 Monteith for Edward I. Hence he was removed to London,
 where, instead of being treated as an honourable enemy who
 had been vanquished, he was tried as if he had been an Eng-

lishman who had turned traitor, and was condemned to be hanged at Smithfield. His head was set on a pole on London Bridge, and his four quarters were sent to be exposed to public view at Newcastle, Berwick, Perth, and Aberdeen.

9. While Edward was engaged in aiding the Flemings against Philip of France, the Scots again rose in arms under the celebrated Robert the Bruce. Baliol was now dead, and his son a prisoner in the Tower; but the family was represented by his sister's son, John Comyn of Badenoch, who had actively exerted himself in the cause of his country's independence, and was an object of peculiar jealousy to Edward. The Bruces, naturally opposed to the claims of the Baliols, had hitherto kept aloof from the defenders of their country, and even engaged in the service of her oppressors. Robert, now in his 23d year, enjoyed the favour of the English king, and was consulted by him on the affairs of Scotland. But he had not abandoned his pretensions to the throne; and feeling that it would be difficult to establish his title without the confidence and co-operation of Comyn, he made a proposal that one of them should renounce his claim, and receive in return the lands of the other. Comyn consented for this price to support his rival, but is said to have embraced the first opportunity of revealing the transaction to Edward. Bruce, being apprized of Comyn's infidelity and his own danger, escaped into Scotland, and sought a secret conference with him in the church of the Minorites at Dumfries. He there charged him with his treachery, and during the altercation that ensued, stabbed him with his dagger. After the murder of Comyn, Bruce assumed the title of king, and was crowned at Scone on the 27th of March 1306. For some time, however, fortune frowned upon him: he suffered many privations, his wife and daughter were made prisoners, many of his friends and relatives perished by the hands of the executioner, while he himself was forced to seek a hiding-place in the Isle of Rathlin on the northern coast of Ireland.

Edward received the news of this revolution with a burst of fury, and speedily took the necessary measures for recovering his authority. Though far advanced in years and suffering from illness, he determined to lead his army in person against the daring usurper, as he termed Bruce, and had advanced to Carlisle borne on a litter, when he received news of several advantages gained by the Scots. Denouncing vengeance against them, he insisted on arming himself and being placed

on horseback ; but he was too weak to sit in the saddle, and was carried to his couch, from which he never rose. He died at Burgh-on-the-Sands on the 7th of July 1307, and enjoined his son to carry his bones in front of the army till Scotland should be finally subdued. He had completed the 68th year of his age, and had reigned thirty-four years and seven months.

10. **BANNOCKBURN.**—After the death of Edward I., the Earl of Richmond had continued the war against the partisans of Bruce in Scotland. Many of the inhabitants of the country were, for the reasons already mentioned, partisans of the English interest. But the young king was supported by the main body of the people, and was everywhere victorious over the invaders. In September 1310, Edward II. took the field in person, but merely to return to England in the July following. Bruce severely retaliated by making several irruptions into the northern counties of England, burning Hexham, Carbridge, Durham, and Chester ; and by the end of 1313, nearly every strong place in Scotland was in his hands. Stirling Castle still held out for the English, and to relieve this fortress Edward assembled at Berwick an army of 100,000 men, including 40,000 cavalry. With this mighty host he advanced against Bruce, who with 40,000 men, mostly foot, occupied an advantageous position near Stirling. The right wing of the Scots rested on a rivulet named the Bannock or Bannockburn ; their front was defended by a morass, and their left protected by numerous pits from the attack of cavalry.

On Sunday the 23d of June, the two armies came in sight of each other, but after some skirmishing, which terminated in favour of the Scots, the troops were withdrawn on both sides. Next morning, just after daybreak, the English cavalry advanced to the charge, followed by the main body of the army. The attack was unsuccessful, and the panic-stricken fugitives carried disorder into the English ranks. Taking advantage of their confusion, Bruce gave the signal to advance, and the English army fell like corn before the sickle. Not fewer than 30,000 are said to have perished in the battle and in the flight ; Edward himself was hotly pursued to Dunbar, sixty miles from the scene of his discomfiture. By this great victory Scotland was liberated, and the crown secured to Bruce.

Although Scotland thus asserted its independence, yet the evils it suffered from the ambitious violence of Edward I. were not at an end. It was the interest of the country to be

united with England; and for all that had previously happened, the two countries might have been peaceably joined under one government, but the tyranny of Edward created so strong a spirit of separate nationality, and so bitter a hatred of England, that Scotland remained a separate kingdom in almost perpetual war with England for nearly four hundred years. During this period, the two nations, which, if united, might have increased each other's wealth and happiness, were each proud of the injuries which it could do to its neighbour. Scotland being the smaller and poorer country, was the principal sufferer from these contests. Indeed from comparative wealth and civilisation in the reign of Alexander, it was reduced to great misery and poverty, from which it scarcely redeemed itself until its final union with England. It has been observed that scarcely any of the fine specimens of Gothic architecture in Scotland were raised between the accession of John Baliol and the death of Robert the Third in 1406.

EXERCISES.

1. Who was king of Scotland at the time of the Norman conquest? What was then comprehended in Scotland? What kind of homage did the Scottish king pay to the English? What was the nature of the old institutions of Scotland, as compared with those of England?

2. Who co-operated with Prince Louis? What event preceded a long peace? What occasioned a war? Describe some features of the character of Alexander II.

3. What occasioned the invasion of Haco? Where was he defeated? Who was the Maiden of Norway? What plots were formed against her?

4. What position was Scotland placed in by the death of the Maiden of Norway? What took place at the conference of Norham? Describe the claims of Baliol, Bruce, and Hastings to the crown. What was Edward's conduct in the adjustment of the succession?

5. How did the people of Scotland feel in relation to those of England? Were they each other's natural enemies? Who disliked the Normans? Why had the barons little interest in the independence of Scotland? How did the highlanders feel?

6. What was the occasion of the first rising against England? What did Edward do when it commenced? What was done in the parliament at Berwick?

7. Who was Sir William Wallace? How did his career begin? Who joined him? What was the result of his first engagement with the English? Describe Wallace's achievements.

8. Which party gained the battle of Falkirk? What was the conduct of the victors? What did Wallace do? Describe his fate.

9. Under whom did the Scots again rise in arms? Describe his negotiations with Comyn. What was Comyn's fate? When was Bruce crowned? How did Edward receive the news of this event? How was he occupied when he died?

10. What was the state of matters immediately after the death of Edward I.? When was a celebrated battle fought between the English and the Scots? Give some account of the battle of Bannockburn. What was the effect throughout Scotland of the country requiring to be at war with England?

CHAPTER XIV.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD III. TO THE
DEATH OF RICHARD II., A. D. 1327--1399.

Edward III.—Execution of Mortimer—Battle of Halidon Hill—Disputes on the Succession to the French Crown—James von Artaveldt and the Flemish Revolt—Victories of Crecy and of Neville's Cross—The Black Prince—Victory of Poitiers—Reforms—Purveyance—Constitution of Parliament—Exactions of the Papal See—Wickliffe—The Black Plague—State of Society—Sumptuary Laws—Richard II.—Capitation Tax—Wat Tiler's Insurrection—War with Scotland—*The Wonderful Parliament*—Battle of Otterburn—State of Ireland—Deposition of the King—Parliamentary Resistance against the Pope—Statute of *Præmunire*.

Edward III., A. D. 1327—1377.

1. WHEN the youthful Edward was proclaimed king, a council of regency was appointed, the Earl of Lancaster being named guardian and protector of the king's person; but the whole power of the government was really in the hands of his mother Isabella and her paramour Mortimer.

Edward very early displayed his martial character, and placed himself at the head of an army sent against the Scots, who had invaded the northern counties. A war, in which each party seemed afraid of the other, was soon terminated by a treaty acknowledging the independence of Scotland, and recognising Robert Bruce as its lawful king. This treaty, in which Mortimer was the principal agent, disgusted the English nation, and a party was formed against him, headed by the princes of the royal family. He was, however, skilful enough to detach the Duke of Kent from the side of his enemies by a story that Edward II. was still alive, and by producing forged letters purporting to be sent by the pope, urging Kent to release his captive brother. The weak-minded duke fell into the snare, and was tried and convicted of high treason. When he was conducted to the place of execution outside the town of Winchester, no one could be found to perform the office of headsman to the son of the great Edward, till, after a delay of four hours, a convicted felon, on condition of receiving a free pardon, agreed to strike the fatal blow. Others of the nobility also felt the weight of Mortimer's power, who began

to affect almost sovereign state. But the king, who was now eighteen years old and a father, could ill brook the imperious airs of his minister, and during the sitting of parliament at Nottingham, Mortimer was seized by stratagem in the castle of that city, where he lodged with the queen-mother, and met with the just reward of his crimes on a gibbet. The guilty Isabella was deprived of her jointure, and confined to her house at Castle Rising, where she passed the remaining twenty-seven years of her life in obscurity.

Edward now assumed the reins of government, and turned his thoughts towards Scotland, with a determination to reduce it under his sway. Regardless of the treaty concluded by Mortimer, he declared war against David Bruce, and recognised as king of Scotland his competitor Edward Baliol. David was driven from his throne, and the victory of Halidon hill (1333) for a brief space delivered the lowlands into the power of his rival, who was solemnly crowned at Scone. The war, however, still continued between the regents and the new king, whom three expeditions of his protector could not maintain in his sovereignty.

2. But a wider field now lay open to Edward's ambition. At the death of Charles IV. of France, his nearest heirs were his sister Isabella, mother of Edward III., and his cousin-german Philip of Valois. From policy, as well as by long established precedent, the crown was conferred upon Philip, for it was contrary to the principle of succession which had been established in France, and which is known by the name of "the Salic law," that a female should succeed to the crown. To hold their fiefs "under the distaff" was considered humiliating to men whose chief pursuit was war, and whose king was their military leader. The exclusion of the mother seems to have cut off the son's claims; but Edward was unwilling to resign them without a struggle. His pretensions were condemned by the French barons, and he appeared resigned to his failure, consenting to do homage to Philip for Guienne.

• The cruelties of the Count of Flanders having offended his subjects, a revolt broke out at Ghent, and soon spread over the whole territory. James von Artaveldt, a brewer of that city, put himself at the head of this movement, and advised Edward to assume the title of King of France, so that the Flemings might be able to join his banner without violating the feudal laws. Somewhat prior to this, Robert of Artois, proscribed by the King of France, had taken refuge in Eng-

land, and given a similar counsel. Hostilities now became inevitable; and Edward, having obtained subsidies, and seized the tin in Cornwall and Devonshire, besides all the wool in the kingdom, and having even pawned the crown jewels to raise money, sailed for the continent in 1338. The first operations were unfavourable to the English king, who, notwithstanding the defeat of the French fleet in the harbour of Sluys, was unable to take Tournay, and saw a numerous body of his troops routed at Saint Omer by the Duke of Burgundy. A truce for a year was then agreed upon, and the cessation of hostilities on the continent permitted Edward to march against the Scots, who had expelled Baliol (1340).

3. A disputed succession to the ducal crown of Brittany again led Edward into a war with Philip. Montfort, the rejected competitor for the dukedom, having sought the assistance of the English king, a treaty was entered into between them, and when the duke fell into the hands of his enemies, he sent succours to the countess, who, with "the courage of a man and the heart of a lion," was heroically supporting her husband's interests. Edward himself landed with an army in Brittany in 1342, and laid siege to Vannes; but before he could take it, the Duke of Normandy, Philip's son, arrived with a superior force, and Edward willingly agreed to a truce for three years and eight months.

Never was a truce less observed; the English parliament and people were eager for war, and an army was sent into Guienne under the command of the Earl of Derby, Edward's cousin. Not long after, the king in person landed a body of troops in Normandy, whence he marched towards Paris, spreading terror and desolation in his path. An army of 100,000 French was soon collected against him, and while retreating towards Flanders, before this overwhelming force, he halted on the banks of the Somme near Crecy, where with very inferior numbers he defeated his pursuers with dreadful slaughter (1346). Besides 30,000 common soldiers, two kings, eleven princes, eighty bannerets, and 1200 knights perished on the field of battle. The most important result of this signal victory was the capture of Calais, which facilitated the entrance of the English into France during more than two centuries. Subsequent researches have thrown great discredit, to use the mildest term, on Froissart's account of the siege of this town, with the story of the devotion of Eustace

de Saint Pierre and his five fellow-citizens, and their rescue from an ignominious death by the intercession of the English queen.

While Edward was thus triumphing in France, his wife Philippa defeated the Scots at the decisive battle of Neville's Cross, where David Bruce was made prisoner. Pope Clement VI., pitying the misery of the afflicted people, whom famine and pestilence were carrying off by thousands, interposed between the contending monarchs of England and France, and brought about a cessation of hostilities, which lasted until 1355. During the war we have been describing, the plague swept over Europe, depopulating numerous towns and cities. Beginning in China, it crossed the deserts of Asia, and passing through the Levant, Egypt, Greece, Italy, Germany, and France, it appeared in London towards the close of 1348, where it committed the most fearful ravages.

4. BATTLE OF POITIERS.—The war with France was renewed on the expiration of the truce, when the Prince of Wales, better known as the Black Prince, from the colour of his armour, landed at Bordeaux and overran Aquitaine. Edward himself marched from Calais and ravaged Picardy, but was compelled to return from want of provisions ere he had reached Amiens. In the following year, John the Good, aided by the votes of the States-general, assumed the offensive, and obtained some advantages in Normandy; but the progress of the Black Prince called him beyond the Loire. With an army numerically superior in the proportion of six to one, John approached the English position near Poitiers. The papal legate, Cardinal Talleyrand, spent a whole day in endeavours to prevent bloodshed. The French, however, were confident in their superiority, and would agree to no terms that the honour of Prince Edward would allow him to accept; and on the morrow the fight began, when the English gained a victory more disastrous to France than even that of Crecy. John fell into the hands of the English, and was brought to
A.D. } London, where he shared the captivity of David of
1360. } Scotland. The latter was soon after restored to liberty; and the influence of his wife, Edward's sister, prevented any further disturbance to England from that quarter. The peace
A.D. } of Bretigny put an end to the French war. By this
1360. } humiliating treaty the English became the acknowledged masters of Calais, Ponthieu, and all the provinces belonging to the ancient duchy of Aquitaine, besides which

King John was to be ransomed by the enormous sum of three million crowns of gold.

The conquered provinces did not bear the English yoke without murmuring. The treaty of Bretigny had not been fulfilled; John's ransom was never paid; some of the stipulated territory was never ceded; and the expedition of the Black Prince into Spain, to the support of Pedro the Cruel, so embarrassed his finances that he was compelled to impose heavy taxes upon his subjects of Guienne. This made the cup overflow; and Charles V., encouraged by the reviving prosperity of his country, no less than by the declining health of Edward III. and his son, lent a favourable ear to the complaints of the Gascon nobles, and regardless of the treaty of Bretigny, which conferred sovereign rights upon the Black Prince, summoned him to appear as a vassal at the court of Paris. Edward replied haughtily that he would go there A.D. }
1369. } accompanied by 60,000 men. War immediately broke out, and although the English twice traversed France from Calais to Bordeaux, they were unable to maintain their conquests. During a truce, concluded by the intervention of Pope Gregory XI., the Prince of Wales and his father both died, within a year of each other. The reverses suffered by Edward's troops, the misery of his kingdom, the scandalous weaknesses of his old age (for he had fallen under the management of an artful woman named Alice Perrers), all contributed to imbitter the recollection of past prosperity. He had seen Scotland, notwithstanding his victories, re-established in its independence under the house of Stewart; the fruits of Crecy and Poitiers were irrecoverably lost; and most of the continental possessions of his ancestors had passed under the laws of France. He breathed his last at a moment when, under a juvenile king, hostilities were about to commence from which England was to reap nothing but fresh misfortunes.

5. The reign of Edward III. might as well be treated of in a history of France as of England. Most of those great events which historians delight to narrate passed on the continent. But while this warlike monarch was covering himself with military glory, his subjects obtained many advantageous concessions, and the enactment of several equitable laws, in return for their supplies.

The most revolting corruptions had existed in the courts for the administration of justice. The judges did not scruple

to enrich themselves at the expense of the suitors ; and it was long before the remonstrances of the parliament procured any redress of such grievances. Edward at length consented that the sheriffs and coroners should not have a life-interest in their offices, but be annually elected from the wealthier classes, and that the salaries of the judges should be increased so as to put them above the reach of bribery. The pleadings were also to be in English, and not as formerly in French. The justices of the peace were further required to hold four sessions every year. The crime of treason was defined and limited, an improvement of the highest importance, as the offence carried with it the confiscation to the crown of all the property of the attainted criminal, and, in order to fill the king's treasury, the judges frequently convicted persons of treason whose crime did not exceed felony or trespass.

It was not so easy to set aside one of the most intolerable abuses of the sovereign power, the right of purveyance. All the expenses of the king and his household during his journeys were defrayed by the inhabitants of the districts through which he passed, and all the horses and carriages for several miles on each side of the road were put in requisition. We may form some faint idea of the hardships arising out of this right of purveyance, by remembering that the magnificent structure of Windsor Castle was built and decorated by workmen of every class, pressed into the royal service from all parts of the kingdom, and that their wages, if they received any, were paid by the earls of their respective counties. Edward would not give way on this point, and nothing more could be obtained than a few checks upon its abuse. For three centuries longer this right was still in full exercise.

From this reign we must date the origin of many of the liberties of England, which the people gained by their perseverance. Although Edward exercised what were understood to be the privileges of the crown in the most arbitrary manner, he was denied the power of suspending the course of justice by his sole will, of seizing the merchant vessels for purposes of war, of pressing men for the service of his fleet, and of compelling the nation to supply him with soldiers. Parliament protested against forced loans, against the creation of monopolies, the imposition of exorbitant and unjust fines, the extension of the royal forests, the authority of the privy council or star-chamber in private causes, and the imprison-

ment of members for expressing their sentiments too freely in either house of parliament.

The English parliament, after many vicissitudes, had at length assumed a regular form, and was composed of three estates,—clergy, barons, and commons. The clergy were represented by the prelates and dignitaries of the church, who sat in the house of lords, and are believed to have done so, not on account of their spiritual dignities, but of their temporal baronies. The public at large were represented by the county members, called knights of the shire, and by a variable number of deputies from the cities and towns to which the king's writs were addressed, who were called burgesses. Each knight of the shire received four shillings, each city or town member two shillings a-day, at the expense of their constituents. Church matters were intrusted to the clergy; political interests to the barons; commercial subjects came within the province of the commons; but as a general rule, the three orders were not bound by a law passed by any of them separately. In practice, however, these limits were not always observed.

6. The extension of the papal power, and above all the immense amount of the taxes paid to the Roman see, had at different times attracted the attention and called forth the remonstrances of parliament. The English envoys to the
A.D. } council of Lyons solemnly asserted that Italian priests
1245. } drew from England sixty or seventy thousand marks yearly—a sum exceeding the whole revenue of the crown; and Gregory IX. is said to have extracted from the country, in the course of a very few years, 950,000 marks, a sum equivalent, as is supposed, to fifteen million pounds of our money. In the reign of Edward III. the design of throwing off the yoke of pontifical authority began to assume a distinct form.

Of all the fiscal grievances that of *first-fruits* was held to be the most intolerable. This tax seems to have been unknown in England before the year 1246, when Boniface, archbishop of Canterbury, obtained from Innocent IV. the first year's income of every benefice that should fall vacant in his diocese for six years. Pandulph, bishop of Norwich, had already of his own will imposed a similar tax. Other prelates imitated this example, until Clement V., being informed of the wealth of the English benefices, reserved the first-fruits to himself, in which he was imitated by his successor John XXII. The

popes had not from the first possessed the right of filling up the vacant sees; this they usurped by slow degrees, and the acts by which they nominated to the vacant ecclesiastical dignities were called *provisions*, because the actual donation of the temporalities belonged to the king, who had the power of withholding it. This encroachment upon the rights of the chapters, in whom lay the choice of their bishop, was extended by the Roman court to the inferior benefices. Upon this the complaints became louder and more consistent. Most of these benefices were pious foundations, the patronage of which the donors had reserved for their descendants. These the popes conferred, not on resident priests, but often on foreigners who did not know the language of the country. It might be imagined that the kings, deprived of the right of appointment to the vacant sees, would have taken the part of the protesting patrons; but if they themselves were occasionally induced to protest, they often found it more advantageous to be silent, because the popes never, or at least very seldom, refused to induct the monarch's nominees; and the latter avoided those frequent discussions with the chapters, when they disagreed on the choice of a titular. Further, this concession of benefices, provisionally accorded by the pope, gave the king an opportunity of rewarding and enriching his chaplains or other servants, without touching the treasures of the state or the royal revenues. The produce of the first-fruits had become so important, that the court of Rome maintained agents in England for the express purpose of watching over the execution of the provisional bulls, of receiving claims regarding benefices, of deciding certain questions, and particularly of collecting the amounts of these first-fruits, and transmitting them to the papal treasury.

The evil had grown to such a height that the introduction of these provisional letters was forbidden by statute in 1343 and 1344, and severe penalties were pronounced against all who should act upon them. But the court of Rome found means to evade these acts; and in 1376, the English clergy and people were so exasperated, that, although Edward III. still endeavoured to temporize, he was under the necessity of enforcing the penal laws against provisors, and the vassalage and annual rent to which King John had subjected his kingdom were declared null and void.

7. WICKLIFFE.—If we reflect upon all that must have been said on both sides during the important discussion which thus

limited the temporal power of the popes, we shall come to the conclusion that the seed was already sown that was to produce the reformation which occurred two centuries later. The preaching of a poor priest, and the persecutions of which he was the victim, began to open the eyes of the people, and were destined to change the religious aspect of England.

This priest was named Wickliffe, and he first attracted notoriety by the violence of his attacks upon the mendicant orders of friars, who had greatly multiplied during the preceding century. Many of these monks, notwithstanding the humility imposed upon them by the statutes of their respective orders, had crept into the closets of the sovereigns; all the secrets of state were known to them; they filled professorial chairs in the universities; and some of them had been raised even to the episcopal dignity. Wickliffe accused them of heresy, and loudly inveighed against that scandalous mendicancy which extorted offerings by falsehood and importunity. Islep, archbishop of Canterbury, convinced by Wickliffe's arguments, appointed him warden of a college he had founded at Oxford, and named after his see. On Islep's death, his successor Langham expelled Wickliffe, who appealed to the pope, and by him was condemned. This irritated the priest against the pontiff; he undertook the defence of the university and of the crown against the pretensions of Rome; he was honourably noticed by the king, was appointed one of his honorary chaplains, and after enjoying for a short time the living of Fylingham in Lincolnshire, exchanged it for that of Lutterworth in Leicestershire. He still held his professorship at Oxford, and although he inveighed constantly against the lives and austerities of the begging friars, he seemed willing to imitate them, by wearing garments of the homeliest texture, and by going barefoot. He attacked the pope and all the dignitaries of the church with the most biting sarcasm, styling them hypocrites fattened with the good things of this world, real antichrists, and traitors to God and their neighbour. In order to propagate his principles, he formed a body of clergy who were captivated by his eloquence, gave them the name of "poor priests," inspired them with the resolution to accept no benefice, and sent them to preach to the country people, following our Saviour's example in their virtue and their poverty. He was several times accused of heresy, and on one occasion was protected with a high hand by John of Gaunt. He died in peace at Lutterworth; but the council of Constance

declared him an obstinate heretic, and forty years after his death his bones were taken out of his grave and burnt, and the ashes thrown into a neighbouring brook. His opinions were adopted by Huss, from whom they were received and greatly modified by Martin Luther.

8. **THE PLAGUE.**—During the reign of Edward III., England was exposed to severe calamities. All the continent, from Calabria to the north of Poland, was shaken by a terrible earthquake; and though our island escaped its shocks, the heavens poured down incessant floods of rain during nearly six months, which entirely ruined the harvest. To complete the national distress, the Black Death burst out at Dover in the month of August 1348. Beginning in China and ravaging the whole Indian peninsula, it crossed the deserts of Asia, and was carried by a burning south wind from the banks of the Nile to Greece and the coasts of the Mediterranean. Rushing over Italy, unchecked by the eternal snows of the Alps, it fell upon France, where a great proportion of the people became its victims. Thence it passed into England, sometimes causing death in a few hours, but generally in two or three days. About the end of November, it reached London, where 200 perished every day. Superstitious people imagined that the end of the world was come. All the ties of family and friendship were broken. The parliament was prorogued, the courts of justice were closed, the churches resounded with groans and prayers. The inhabitants of the cities fled into the fields; the dwellers in the country fled for succour to the town; but neither could find the consolation and aid they so much needed. From man the scourge passed to the lower animals; horses, oxen, and sheep, infected with their rotting carcasses the fields left without cultivation; and famine in its turn failed not to sweep off those whom the pestilence had spared. For a time England alone was subject to the epidemic, but at length it extended to Scotland and Ireland.*

9. Society was almost disorganized by this terrible influe-

* The ravages of the cholera and of the plague are even at the present day not less dreadful in uncivilized countries, where the habits of the people are filthy, and their dwelling-places close, damp, and ill drained. The plague does not now reach Great Britain, and the cholera attacks but a small portion of the population; yet the numerous victims of the disastrous year 1849 show that with all our boasted civilisation we are in sanitary matters very little above the level of barbarism.

tion. The rich, who had shut themselves up in their mansions to avoid contagion, had dismissed most of their servants, who, being thus without resources, and having nothing to fear from the hand of justice, assembled in formidable bodies, and supported themselves by robbing farm-houses and plundering travellers. As the lower classes were the principal sufferers, men could not be found in sufficient numbers to cultivate the land, or to make the necessary agricultural implements. Hence all kinds of workmen and labourers demanded exorbitant wages, the landlords gave up their rents, the barons exempted their *villains* from their quota of labour, and the farmers permitted their standing crops to rot in the fields. Edward III. fancied he could remedy these evils by fixing the maximum price of provisions, and by ordering every man to resume work at the same wages as before, limiting the number of labourers to be employed on each acre of land, and prohibiting the charitable from giving alms to able-bodied mendicants. The pillory, imprisonment, and fines were the mildest penalties inflicted on the transgressors of this law.

The visitation of so terrible a calamity was ascribed to human depravity, and the just vengeance of the Almighty. The wickedness of the nation was great, no doubt; but the preaching of the monks fixed it on ridiculous rather than serious objects. Their most violent censure fell on the women, their vesture, and their morals. They were represented as so abandoned by the Spirit of God as to wear tunics of two colours, newfangled head-dresses, embroidered girdles, and ornaments of gold. Not contented, as formerly, with quiet hackneys, they must needs ride on fiery war-horses, and mingle indiscreetly in the manly amusements of the joust and tournament. The men's apparel did not altogether escape reproach. Their pointed shoes, their curled beards, their silken cloaks, and party-coloured dresses, were regarded as so many inventions of the devil to ruin their souls. This assertion appeared so well founded, that the king enacted a sumptuary law, to put an end to the flagrant scandal. The nation was divided into six classes, the first three of which included the labourers, farmers, squires, and gentlemen, whose income did not exceed one hundred marks, and merchants whose property did not amount to £500 sterling. All these were forbidden to wear silks, furs, gold brocade, ornaments of gold and silver, and precious stones. The knights and landed proprietors whose revenues amounted to 200 marks, and merchants worth

a thousand pounds sterling, could not wear either jewels or stuffs embroidered with gold, and robes or upper-coats trimmed with fur were especially interdicted. Their wives, however, were allowed to carry a few ornaments in their hair. The sixth class, including all whose annual income amounted to 400 marks, might dress as they pleased, ermine and certain ornaments reserved to the king and royal family alone being excepted. This measure was disastrous in its effects upon English commerce. Most of the workmen, who were dependent upon the luxurious tastes of the rich and the noble, abandoned their country, and carried their abilities to a more hospitable land. They were replaced by a horde of fanatics, known as the *Flagellants*. These madmen assembled in the public places, and stripping to the waist, flogged each other until the blood ran to their girdles. The pope had driven them from France; in England they were charitably received, but made no proselytes.

Richard II. (of Bordeaux), A. D. 1377—1399.

10. RICHARD II., son of Edward the Black Prince, ascended the throne at the early age of eleven years. No regular regency was appointed to manage affairs, but the prelates and barons chose twelve permanent councillors, to the exclusion of the king's uncles. The French took advantage of the minority, and insulted and plundered the English coast. A squadron under the command of the Earls of Arundel and Salisbury retaliated by the capture of Cherbourg, and Brest was afterwards ceded to the Duke of Lancaster. The Scots, too, at the instigation of France, renewed the war, and the shipping along the eastern coast suffered from the incursions of their privateers; to punish whom, a London merchant, one John Phillpot, fitted out a small fleet at his own expense, captured fifteen of their ships, and recovered all the prizes.

The heavy expenses attending an inglorious campaign in France compelled parliament to impose a capitation-tax. Every male and female of fifteen years of age was to pay three groats; but in the cities and towns the amount was to be so divided among the inhabitants according to their abilities, that no one should pay less than one groat, or more than sixty for himself and wife. Abuses were sure to prevail in the levying of such a tax, and in the absence of all registration, the age of young persons was a source of frequent dispute. But there was a feeling then pervading the nation that threatened more

than mere local disturbances. The peasantry were beginning to reflect upon their condition, and to compare it with that of their superiors, who tyrannized over them and lived upon the fruits of their labour. The soldiers, who had fought and bled on the continent by the side of their lords, again sank to the condition of serfs on their return home. They had taken part in the great emancipation of the Flemish citizens, and had imbibed some of their principles; they had witnessed the insurrection of the peasants in France, the murder of the collectors in several places, the revolts of Paris and Rouen, and had returned to their firesides with a spirit of independence which could not brook the personal oppression to which the peasantry were liable at this time in England as well as in other countries. It would also appear that they confounded the Christian liberty, proclaimed by Wickliffe's disciples, with the civil liberty on which all their thoughts were bent. Thus was everything ready for an explosion, which the brutality of a tax-gatherer accelerated. It must never be forgotten that the enfranchisement of the peasant, the villain or serf, was the object of the movement.

11. **WAT TILER'S INSURRECTION.**—In order to facilitate the levying of the tax, commissioners were appointed to inquire after all recusants. One of these agents sat at Brentwood in Essex, where he summoned the people of the village of Fobbing to appear before him. The peasants refused to obey, drove away the commissioner, and when a judge was sent to punish their contumacy, they murdered the jurors and clerks who accompanied him, and placing their heads on poles, carried them through all the adjoining districts, calling upon the people to rise and join them. They found a leader in a riotous priest, who assumed the name of Jack Straw, and the eastern counties were soon in open rebellion.

In the town of Dartford in Kent lived a tiler named Walter, the father of a beautiful maiden of fourteen. One of the collectors, calling at his house, demanded the tax for his daughter. The mother declared she was under age, and the collector, disbelieving her words, laid violent hands on the girl, whose shrieks brought her father into the house, and with his hammer he knocked out the tax-gatherer's brains. Every one applauded the deed, and prepared to support Walter the Tiler. About the same time, Sir Simon Burley carried off from Gravesend a man whom he claimed as a runaway serf, and shut him up in Rochester Castle. The men of Kent rose

to deliver him, and, aided by their Essex brethren, compelled the garrison to liberate their prisoner. Wat the Tiler was placed at the head of the insurgents, and a priest named John Ball was appointed their chaplain or preacher.

The rebels marched to Canterbury, whence, after beheading three rich men, they turned towards London. By the time they reached Blackheath their numbers amounted, it is said, to 100,000 desperate men. Ball kept them to their purpose by his fiery comments on the distich they had chosen for their device :—

When Adam delved and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?

He proved to their complete satisfaction that when they had expelled all the archbishops, bishops, nobles, lawyers, and monks, then all men would be alike noble, and enjoy equal power ; and that if they lost the present opportunity of freeing themselves, which God had placed in their hands, they would deserve to remain slaves. His enchanted hearers promised to follow his advice, and to make him Chancellor and Primate of England. They occupied all the roads, killed all the lawyers that fell into their hands, and compelled travellers to swear that they would be true to King Richard and the commons, and pay no tax save the fifteenths which had been paid by their forefathers. The king and the leading members of the government took refuge in the Tower ; while the insurgents, marching along the right bank of the Thames, destroyed the Marshalsea and King's Bench prisons, and burned all the books and records in the primate's palace at Lambeth. Walworth, the mayor of London, was compelled to allow their entrance into the capital. At first their conduct was moderate ; but when joined by the rabble of the city, they indulged in great excesses. The Savoy, the palace of the unpopular Duke of Lancaster, was burnt to the ground. Newgate prison, the Fleet, the Temple with its books and ancient records, and St John's Priory at Clerkenwell, shared the same fate. Nearly a hundred Flemings were murdered, with many wealthy citizens who endeavoured to escape. But to show that plunder was not their object, the leaders proclaimed that none, on pain of death, should convert to his own use any plate, gold, or jewels, but that all should be destroyed.

12. Conciliatory measures were attempted, and Richard, who rode into the midst of the Essex and Hertfordshire insur-

gents at Mile-End, agreed to their four demands:—1. The total abolition of slavery. 2. The reduction of the rent of land to fourpence an acre. 3. Full liberty of buying and selling in all fairs and markets. 4. A general pardon for all past offences. Three of these demands were wise and moderate, and the petitioners quietly withdrew after the king had sealed this charter. But the Kentish men were less reasonable, and more atrocious in their conduct. They broke into the Tower, and murdered the primate, the treasurer, the king's confessor, and one of the farmers of the taxes, with three of his associates.

Wat the Tiler and the Kentish rebels rejected the charter which the other insurgents had so gladly accepted, and two other charters which were drawn up failed to satisfy their exorbitant demands. In the hope that a personal conference would lead to a settlement, the king rode into Smithfield, and Wat Tiler advanced to parley with him. His coarse and insolent behaviour alarmed the king's attendants, and Lord Mayor Walworth plunged a short sword into his throat. Another blow from one of Richard's esquires brought him to the ground, when he expired almost instantly. The insurgents cried out that they were betrayed: a thousand arrows were immediately aimed at the royal party, when the young king rode gallantly up to the rebels and exclaimed: "What are ye doing, my lieges? Tiler was a traitor—I am your king—I will be your captain." The danger was over: the insurgents disbanded as fast as they could, throwing away their arms, and imploring mercy.

The outbreak was not confined to the districts around London: in Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon the peasants had risen, but were suppressed chiefly by the energy of the Bishop of Norwich. Richard was soon at the head of 40,000 men, and he took a bloody revenge: the charters were revoked, the people were again reduced to bondage, and 1500 died by the hands of the executioner. The assembled parliament scouted the notion of abolishing villainage, and passed a law by which "riots, rumours, and other such things," were made high-treason.

13. At this time there were two claimants for the papal throne: Clement VII., a Frenchman, whose cause was espoused by Scotland, France, Spain, Sicily, and Cyprus; and Urban VI., an Italian, who was supported by England, Flanders, and the rest of Europe. The Bishop of Norwich, who had

gained distinction in the late insurrection, raised a small force and crossed over to Flanders, to aid partly in a crusade for Urban VI., and partly in defence of the Flemish commons. Philip von Artaveldt, whose father had been murdered thirty-six years before, was prevailed upon to leave his retirement and lead the armies of his dispirited fellow-citizens. After a brilliant and romantic career of fifteen months, he was defeated and slain in the sanguinary battle of Rosebecque, November 1382. Just at this time the English reinforcements arrived. The bishop stormed Gravelines, defeated the Count of Flanders, took Dunkirk, and held the whole coast as far as Sluys. He next marched to attack Ypres, where he was joined by 20,000 men of Ghent, whence, on the approach of a strong French army, he retreated to the coast. In England this failure was ascribed to the intrigues of the Duke of Lancaster.

Jealous of the power of the king's uncles, his mother contrived to surround him with ministers and officers of obscure birth; and the liberality with which Richard bestowed wealth and honours upon his favourites, occasioned perpetual contentions between them and his aspiring relatives. The Duke of Lancaster became an object of suspicion, and deemed it prudent to seek an asylum in Scotland; nor would he return until the king had publicly acknowledged his innocence. In the spring of 1384, during the session of parliament, which met at Salisbury, an Irish Carmelite friar gave Richard a parchment with the particulars of a conspiracy to rob him of his crown and place it on the head of Lancaster. The duke swore that it was utterly false, and demanded that the informer should be kept in safe custody until examined by the council. He was accordingly committed to the care of Sir John Holland, the king's half-brother, who is said to have strangled the prisoner with his own hands during the night. The king's suspicions, however, were not allayed, and an attempt was made to arrest Lancaster; but Richard's mother at length effected a reconciliation, and the affair was allowed to drop.

14. In May of the following year, the French prevailed upon the Scots to break their truce with England, and besides 40,000 francs in gold, they sent over 1000 men-at-arms under John de Vienne, lord-admiral of France, to support an incursion into the English territory. Richard immediately took the field, and forced the allies to retire from Northumberland, which they had invaded, and then with 80,000 men crossed the border, burnt Edinburgh, Perth, and other towns, and

withdrew upon receiving intelligence that De Vienne had crossed the Solway, and was besieging Carlisle. A dreadful crime sullied the glory of this campaign. While at York, Sir J. Holland murdered one of the royal favourites, and the grief caused by this assassination broke the heart of the king's mother. Honours were liberally distributed on the return of the army to England: Henry of Bolingbroke, Lancaster's son, was created Earl of Derby; the Earls of Cambridge and Buckingham, Richard's uncles, were made Dukes of York and Gloucester; and as there was no male heir from the king's marriage with Anne of Bohemia, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV., the king declared that his successor should be Roger, earl of March, grandson of Lionel, duke of Clarence.

Soon after these arrangements, Lancaster departed to press his claims to the throne of Castile. His first campaign was fortunate, but in the second his army was so thinned by disease, and his own health suffered so severely, that he was forced to retire to Guienne. By an advantageous treaty, his daughter Catherine was married to the heir of the reigning king of Castile, and for many generations the issue of John of Gaunt sat on the Spanish throne.

When parliament met in 1386, the Duke of Gloucester, Lancaster's younger brother, headed an opposition which determined to drive the favourites De la Pole and De Vere from office. The first was soon dismissed, and then impeached by the Commons of high crimes and misdemeanours. He was found guilty, and condemned to pay a heavy fine and be imprisoned. Attempts were now made to form a permanent council, like those in the reigns of John, Henry III., and Edward II.; but when the king resisted the measure, the statute by which Edward II. had been deposed was produced, as if to remind him of a similar fate. Richard now gave way, and the powers of government were vested for a year in the hands of eleven commissioners and the three great officers of the crown, Gloucester, the king's uncle, being placed at the head of the council.

15. In the following year, the king, acting under the advice of De la Pole and Chief-justice Tresilian, submitted the question to the judges as to the legality of this commission of government. All asserted that it was illegal, and that the promoters were liable to capital punishment. This decision was betrayed to Gloucester, who with his partisans immediately advanced towards London at the head of 40,000 men.

The favourites instantly took to flight; the royal troops, wherever they resisted, were utterly defeated; and the "wonderful parliament" of 1388 condemned five of Richard's obnoxious councillors as guilty of high-treason. Their property was confiscated, and Tresilian and Brember, lord mayor of London, were executed. The judges also were impeached; their plea that they acted under terror of the king and the favourites was of no avail; they were capitally convicted; but on the intercession of the bishops, their punishment was commuted into perpetual banishment to Ireland. Other parties also fell victims to the Duke of Gloucester's revengeful disposition.

In this year, on the 15th of August, the battle of Otterburn, renowned in English song by the name of *Chevy Chase*, was fought between Earl Douglas and Lord Harry Percy, surnamed Hotspur. The Scottish earl was slain; but the English were defeated, after both Hotspur and his brother Ralph Percy had been made prisoners.

At a great council in the month of May 1389, Richard suddenly asked his uncle, "How old do you think I am?" "Your Highness," replied Gloucester, "is in your twenty-second year." "In that case," rejoined the king, "I am surely of age to manage my own affairs. I thank you, my lords, for your past services, but I want them no longer." He immediately demanded the great seals from the Archbishop of Canterbury, and the keys of the exchequer from the Bishop of Hereford, and then expelled Gloucester from the council almost without opposition. Lancaster soon after returned from the continent, and became all at once exceedingly popular. By his means a reconciliation was effected; Gloucester was readmitted to the council; and Lancaster, after being created Duke of Aquitaine, was intrusted with the French negotiations, which ended in a truce for four years, in which Scotland also was embraced.

After the death of Richard's wife, "the good Queen Anne," the king crossed over to Ireland at the head of a large force. This was rendered necessary by the resistance of the native chiefs and the revolt of some of his English subjects.

16. IRELAND.—The native Irish, the most distinguished of whom were the O'Neals, the O'Connors, and the O'Briens, preserved their independence in Ulster, Leinster, and Connaught; but they were disunited and jealous of each other, and often received money from England to raise troops against

their fellow-countrymen. A similar disorder prevailed among the English colonists. These, who were the issue of the first conquerors, regarded themselves as the lawful possessors of the soil; they had intermarried with the natives, and had adopted their dress, manners, language, and laws. The English who had been sent over by the king, or who had been banished, were necessarily protected by the government, and were viewed with no friendly eyes by the Anglo-Irish. The laws enacted for the administration of that island seemed to have been framed solely with a view to exasperate the inhabitants. Every Englishman who assumed an Irish name, learnt the language of the country, or adopted the national costume, was liable to imprisonment and confiscation of his property. Whoever married a native, educated his children after the Irish fashion, or stood sponsor for an Irish child, was guilty of high-treason; as were also those who recognised the Irish legislation, and submitted to the decisions of the *Brehon* laws.

When Richard II. had created his favourite Robert de Vere duke of Ireland, and, by conferring on him the life-government of that island, had granted to him in perpetuity all the lands he might conquer from the natives, his manifest intention was to drive back the latter within their ancient limits, and to restore peace in the country. The duke's exile and death had thwarted these intentions; but the Irish were weary of their dissensions, and all the official reports declared that they were inclined to submission. Richard's campaign was brief and bloodless. The leaders submitted, and after passing the winter in Ireland, and redressing abuses, the monarch returned home in triumph.

17. In October 1396, Richard married Isabella, daughter of Charles VI. of France, a princess of great beauty, but little more than seven years old. This marriage was most unpopular in England, and vehemently opposed by Gloucester. Richard meditated revenge, and by treachery and artifice he entrapped into his power the Earls of Warwick and Arundel, and his uncle Gloucester. Lancaster, York, and Henry Bolingbroke accused these and other noblemen of treason, and a parliament was summoned to try the traitors. Arundel was beheaded on Tower Hill; Gloucester died in prison at Calais, not without suspicion of foul play; and Warwick was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in the Isle of Man. This parliament further undid all that was done by the "wonder-

ful parliament" of 1388, and granted the king a life-subsidy upon wool. Moreover, a commission of twelve peers and six commoners was empowered to sit after the dissolution, to examine and determine certain matters as to them should seem best. By means of this junto of Richard's creatures, he became almost an absolute monarch.

This proved the king's ruin: the people murmured at the proceedings of the late parliament, and at its assisting the sovereign in destroying the liberties of the kingdom. The distrust of Mowbray, now duke of Norfolk, and the treachery of Bolingbroke, now duke of Hereford, hurried on the catastrophe. When parliament met in January 1398, Hereford accused Mowbray of treason, and on the latter denying certain conversations, the decision was referred to a wager of battle, a practice by which an accused person engaged to stand by the issue of a single combat—to be acquitted if he were victorious, and to be counted guilty if he were defeated. The combatants met at Coventry; but just as their lances were couched and they were preparing to charge, the king interfered, and condemned Hereford to exile for ten years, and Norfolk for life. The former retired to France; the latter died broken-hearted at Venice, on his way to the Holy Land.

Richard now indulged in the most arbitrary measures, raising money by forced loans, coercing the judges, and, in order to obtain fines, outlawing whole counties, under the pretence that they had favoured his enemies in 1387. Although the entire kingdom was in a ferment, he chose this moment for

A. D. } another Irish expedition. Hereford took advan-
May 1399. } tage of the king's absence to return to England, and with not more than twenty followers, landing at Ravenspurg in Yorkshire (a town long since washed away by the sea), he was at the head of 60,000 men before he reached London. The royal forces dared not oppose the popular favourite, and when Richard returned in haste to Milford Haven his troops deserted almost to a man. Necessity compelled him to resign every hope of resistance, and he surrendered unconditionally to Henry of Bolingbroke. He was conveyed to the metropolis and thrown into the Tower, where he abdicated the crown in favour of his cousin Henry, and on the following day (30th September) his deposition was formally pronounced by the parliament.

The deposed monarch, after being removed from castle to castle, was finally imprisoned at Pontefract, where he termi-

nated his earthly career, either by the hands of assassins or by the slower course of starvation, A. D. 1400.

18. During this reign the discussions on the papal provisions on vacant benefices were brought to a close. Several popes granted these provisions to mere agents of the clergy, to bishops, and to cardinals. The power of these princes of the church proved a serious obstacle to the execution of the statutes of Edward III.; and they exercised so overbearing an influence that parliament authorized the king to grant dispensations to those who rendered particular service to the crown. From cardinals the dispensations rapidly descended to the lower orders, and the abuse soon became so notorious that in 1390 parliament abrogated the provisions granted since the beginning of that year, and denounced the penalty of death against all who should dare bring or send into England any excommunication from the pope relative to the execution of the statutes of the realm. Against this the spiritual peers protested, and the matter was referred to the pope. Boniface IX., who had but recently ascended the pontifical throne, declared the statutes null and void; and to show his power, he forthwith delivered fresh provisions to his cardinals. The Commons resisted the pontiff's pretensions; the Lords approved of and adopted their declaration; and even the prelates agreed that these acts were an encroachment on the rights of the crown. Upon this the famous statute of A.D. 1393. } *Præmunire* was passed, which for ever put out of the king's protection all persons who should purchase bulls, provisions, or excommunications. After almost interminable discussions with the apostolic council, a compromise was arranged in favour of all foreigners, except cardinals; and it was agreed that whenever the pope desired to confer an English benefice on a native, the latter should previously procure the king's license.

EXERCISES.

1. Who was named Edward the Third's guardian? What treaty was formed by Mortimer? Describe his career and fate. What measures did the king take against Scotland?

2. How did Edward stand in regard to the succession to the French throne? How did the Salic law act? What was the effect of the revolt of the Flemings on the conduct of the king? What was the result of the first operations in France?

3. What occasioned Edward's landing in Brittany? Give the name of the first great victory over the French. What was its effect? Who was made prisoner at the battle of Neville's Cross?

4. What name was given to a warlike Prince of Wales? What was the result of the battle of Poitiers? What stipulations were made in the peace of Bretigny? How was it kept? What was Edward's personal character?

5. What kind of corruptions had affected the administration of justice? Describe the reforms made in Edward the Third's reign. What was the nature and effect of the right of purveyance? What restrictions on the monarch's power were secured during this reign? Describe the constitution of parliament at this time.

6. In what shape did the Roman see and the Italian priests derive money from England? Give an account of the exaction of first fruits, and of its history. What encroachments got the name of "Provisions"? What was the effect of the practice? What measures were taken to suppress it?

7. How did Wickliffe come into notice? Describe the influence of the mendicant orders. Give an account of Wickliffe's career. Who got the name of "poor priests"?

8. What calamities afflicted England and the continent during the reign of Edward III.? From what quarter did the plague approach Britain? Describe its effect in England.

9. Describe the state of things which the plague left behind it. How did the king think the evils might be remedied? Give an account of the sumptuary laws of this reign, and the practices they were intended to amend. What effects did they produce?

10. Who was Richard II.? What troubles and conflicts took place at the beginning of his reign? What was the nature of the capitation-tax? Describe the oppressions under which the peasantry suffered.

11. What was the immediate cause of the rising of the people? What were the circumstances under which Wat Tiler slew the tax-collector? Describe the progress of the insurrection. What was the effect of their marching to London?

12. What were the demands conceded by Richard? Who rejected the concessions? Describe the circumstances of Tiler's death. What was the subsequent conduct of the king and parliament?

13. How did a dispute arise as to the popedom, and which side did England take? Describe the warlike proceedings of the Bishop of Norwich. What charges were made against the Duke of Lancaster?

14. What allies did the Scots obtain? Mention the chief events of the war with Scotland. What English nobleman founded a dynasty of Spanish kings? How were the powers of government disposed of by the reluctant assent of the king?

15. How was the validity of the commission questioned? What were the proceedings of the "wonderful parliament"? Who fought the battle of Otterburn, and what was it popularly called? Describe the circumstances under which the king resumed the royal authority.

16. In what parts of Ireland did the native chiefs remain independent? How were the descendants of the first conquerors distinguished from those who afterwards went from England? What laws were passed invidious to the Irish? Who was made governor of Ireland?

17. Whom did Richard marry? What were the consequences of the marriage? Mention a method in which charges of guilt were decided at that period. How did Richard acquire an arbitrary authority? What was his fate?

18. How was the statute against papal provisions nullified? Describe the resistance offered by parliament to the pope. What was the statute of *Præmunire*?

CHAPTER XV.

THE DYNASTY OF LANCASTER, A. D. 1399—1461.

THREE SOVEREIGNS.

Henry IV.—Origin of the House of York—War with Scotland—Revolt of the Percys—War with France—Parliament—The Lollards—Martyrdom of Sawtre and Thorpe—Henry V.—Lord Cobham—Invasion of France—Battle of Agincourt—Treaty of Troyes—Ecclesiastical History—Peculiar Religious Observances—Description of the English Clergy—Henry VI.—Battle of Crevant—Siege of Orleans—Joan of Arc—Jack Cade—Duke of York made Protector—Wars of the Roses—Battle of St Alban's—Warwick the Kingmaker—Battles of Wakefield and Barnet.

Henry IV. (Bolingbroke), A. D. 1399—1413.

1. HENRY's first care was to summon a parliament; but as only six days were allowed for completing the returns, when the new parliament met on the 6th of October, the Commons consisted of nearly the same individuals as those who had been summoned six weeks before in the reign of Richard II. Many of the obnoxious acts passed under the late king were repealed. The sentences against Arundel and Warwick were annulled; and Henry's eldest son was created Prince of Wales, Duke of Guienne, Lancaster, and Cornwall, and Earl of Chester. The youthful Earl of March did not find a single person to intercede in his favour; but no cruelty was exercised upon him or his brother, beyond an honourable captivity in Windsor Castle.

This young earl, named Edmund, whom Richard had declared to be his lawful heir, was descended from Lionel, duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt, Henry's father. As Lionel died without male issue, his pretensions fell to his daughter Philippa, who married Roger Mortimer, earl of March, the representative of the paramour of Isabella of France, and the murderer of Edward II., Philippa's great-grandfather. From the marriage of Philippa of Clarence proceeded another Roger Mortimer, who left two sons, the elder of whom, Edmund, at this time only eight or nine years of age, would have been, according to the modern rules of hereditary descent, indisputably heir to the crown. When this

claim was revived subsequently, it was through Anne, Edmund's sister, who by her marriage with Richard, earl of Cambridge, second son of Edmund, duke of York, gave rise to the pretensions of the house of York, and was the innocent cause of the wars of the Roses. These were so styled from the badges of the two factions—that of York being a *white* rose, and of Lancaster a *red* one.

The very commencement of Henry's reign was disturbed by a conspiracy to dethrone him, and restore the unfortunate Richard. The great barons who had assisted in placing him on the throne, fancying themselves neglected, proclaimed a tournament to be held at Oxford, and the Earl of Huntingdon, Henry's brother-in-law, invited the king to be present. The invitation was accepted, and it was planned that in the midst of the sports a desperate band should rush upon Henry and slay him and his son. The appointed day arrived, but the king, forewarned, was absent. Hoping to retrieve themselves by a rapid movement, the conspirators set out for Windsor with 500 horse; but the monarch had hastened to London, and warrants were already issued for their apprehension as traitors. Hearing that the king was advancing against them at the head of a large army, which he had collected in London, they separated and fled in different directions; but the feeling of the country was roused against them, and they all fell victims to the popular fury, except a few individuals of inferior rank, who, being tried in the common courts, were condemned and executed.

2. To divert the minds of his subjects from internal affairs, Henry determined upon a war with Scotland; but that he might have some show of justice on his side, he first summoned King Robert and the great Scottish barons to meet him at Edinburgh, and there do homage to him as lord paramount. Henry marched to Leith and summoned the capital to surrender, but the brave Duke of Rothesay, who commanded in the castle, rejected his proposals, and famine soon compelled the English army to retreat to the borders. The Scots retaliated in the following year by an incursion into England; but fortune proved adverse to them in two encounters at Nesbit A.D. } Moor and at Homildon Hill. The latter victory was 1402. } owing to the superiority of the English bowmen, whose shafts no armour could resist. Many noblemen of the highest rank fell or were taken prisoners on this fatal field.

The English were less fortunate in Wales, where Owen

Glendower, having raised the standard of rebellion, and been acknowledged by his fellow-countrymen as their legitimate sovereign, defeated Henry's forces in two battles. At the same time, the Percys of Northumberland were conspiring to dethrone the very man whom they had contributed to raise to his present dignity, and that they might be enabled to carry out their designs, they formed a close league with Glendower, and solicited the support of the kings of France and Scotland.

Hotspur, aided by a considerable force under Douglas, marched towards Wales, whither Henry also hastened, and threw himself between the Welsh and the army from the north. On the 21st of July 1403, the two parties met at Shrewsbury, and after a struggle, in which the slaughter was prodigious, the king's troops were victorious. Hotspur fell by a random arrow in the thickest of the fight; Douglas, the Earl of Worcester, Baron Kinderton, and Sir Richard Vernon were made prisoners; the last three, as rebels, being beheaded on the field of battle. The Welsh war continued some time longer; but these brave mountaineers, although strongly supported by a French auxiliary force, could not resist the English arms. Prince Henry drove them from their fortresses, and Glendower was compelled to seek safety in disguise. But his resolute spirit was not subdued: he several times took up arms, and died at last a free man among his native mountains, several years after Henry V. had ascended the throne.

3. The reign of Henry IV. was seldom free from conspiracies. On several occasions it was asserted that Richard was alive and in Scotland, whence he would return to reclaim his throne; and, indeed, as a means of annoyance to the English king, an individual was received and entertained at the court of Scotland, who was represented to be the exiled King of England. But the Percys were his most formidable enemies. The old Earl of Northumberland, who had escaped from the consequences of Hotspur's rebellion, took the field in 1405. Their first armies were defeated by Prince John, Henry's third son; and the Earl of Nottingham and the Archbishop of York, who were made prisoners, were beheaded. The city of York was also severely fined, and its charters were temporarily suspended. Northumberland escaped punishment by fleeing into Scotland, but the king destroyed his castles and confiscated his estates. The heir-apparent to the Scottish throne also fell into Henry's power, by whom he was detained

a prisoner nineteen years. He was treated kindly during his long captivity, and by studying the works of the English poets, particularly the immortal Chaucer, he became the best A.D. } versifier of his age. King Robert never recovered this
1408 } fatal blow, and dying a year after, Albany became regent, retaining his power at the will of the English king, who could always manage him at pleasure by threatening to liberate his nephew. Thus each of these rulers had a hold over the other—the Scottish governor by having the pretended monarch of England, Henry by having in his power the real heir of the crown of Scotland.

The parliaments were not very compliant during this reign, and the unscrupulous Henry was frequently obliged to submit to their wishes. The Commons were generally more submissive than the Lords. On one occasion, to avoid the necessity of asking for supplies to meet the charges of the Welsh war, he made a proposal, which the Commons eagerly seconded, that he should resume all former grants, that he should not have the power of alienating the ancient inheritance of the crown without the consent of parliament, and that he should forthwith appropriate to himself certain portions of church property, so that the Commons might be eased of taxes, and the king live upon his own. This measure, which would have affected half the property in the kingdom, was violently opposed, more particularly by the clergy, the Archbishop of Canterbury even taxing the Commons with irreligion. In 1407, the king's call for subsidies aroused much discontent, of which the Earl of Northumberland endeavoured to take advantage, with the hope of not only recovering his forfeited estates and honours, but of dethroning his sovereign. Neither in Scotland, Wales, nor France could he obtain the support he sought; but at length, with the aid of some of the turbulent border nobles, he advanced as far south as Knaresborough. At Branham Moor, near Tadcaster, he was met by Sir Thomas Rokeby, and perished in the conflict which ensued (1408).

4. For some years England now enjoyed perfect tranquillity, if we except a few disturbances in the Welsh marches. But a fierce struggle was carried on at sea between the French and the English. In 1403, when Henry was marching against the rebellious Hotspur, the French, with whom England was at peace, had dishonourably attacked Guienne, made frequent descents on our coasts, and plundered every English ship they could surprise at sea. They captured a whole fleet of mer-

chantmen, and took the islands of Guernsey and Jersey. The English seamen retaliated on their own account, burning the towns on the coast, and frequently penetrating far into the interior of France. In 1406, a formidable attempt was made on Guienne by the Duke of Orleans, and John the Fearless of Burgundy was sent to drive the English out of Calais. Both of these expeditions signally failed. This led to the animosity of the Orleans and Burgundian families,—of the Armagnacs and Bourguignons; and it was soon after a treaty had been patched up between these factions that an English army under the Duke of Clarence, Henry's second son, landed in Normandy, ostensibly in support of the Orleanists. No battle was fought, and Clarence at the head of 8000 men traversed the whole of France, and reached Bordeaux in safety.

The close of Henry's career was approaching: cares and remorse had made him prematurely old both in body and mind, and epileptic fits shook his strong frame. While praying at Saint Edward's shrine in Westminster Abbey, he was seized with his last fit. He was carried thence into the Jerusalem chamber, and as he lay on his deathbed, he recalled the old prophecy that he should die at Jerusalem. He expired on the 20th of March 1413, in the forty-seventh year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign.

5. PARLIAMENT.—The reign of Henry IV. is a signal instance that the people of England have generally profited by the ill-gotten power of their kings, and enlarged their constitutional freedom under monarchs whose title to the throne was unsound. It was quite natural that it should be so, and that such kings should make concessions for the purpose of securing the good-will of the people. The Commons complained that sometimes statutes were passed as laws in the framing of which they were not consulted, and it was conceded to them that nothing should be held as a new law unless they had given their consent to every word of it. The two houses of parliament maintained that they were entitled to inquire into the manner in which the king conducted the business of the executive government, and to get wicked or incompetent ministers dismissed. In the eighth year of his reign, the Commons presented a series of demands amounting to thirty-one articles, to which the king was compelled to accede, though many of them were unpalatable to an ambitious monarch. Among the grievances thus checked was the practice of the king's council interfering with matters which belonged pro-

perly to the courts of law, and the alienation of the royal revenues, which the Commons insisted ought to be reserved for the royal household and the payment of the king's debts.

The Commons kept a peculiar watch over their special supplies to the king, and learned better than ever how effectual a hold the possession of the purse gave them on their constitutional principles. They adopted the plan of driving bargains with the crown, by presenting petitions of grievances which must be redressed before they would vote money. In the sixth year of Henry's reign, they granted some taxes on the condition that the money should be expended on the defence of the kingdom, and not otherwise; and they appointed treasurers of their own, who were sworn to see the amount properly applied.

Henry IV. was twice married: Mary Bohun, his first wife, bore him four sons, Henry, Thomas, John, and Humphrey, and two daughters, of whom the elder married the Duke of Bavaria, and the younger the King of Denmark. His second wife, daughter of the King of Navarre and widow of the Duke of Brittany, was childless.

6. THE LOLLARDS.—During the reign of Henry IV. the fires of persecution burst out anew against the proselytes of Wickliffe. With the zeal of their master they preached against the riches, luxury, and vicious lives of the clergy. Their sermons were not without effect even on those who did not share in their opinions, but who began to entertain scruples as to the payment of tithes. On the petition of the clergy against the Lollards (a name given in the Low Countries to the persecuted Franciscans and other enthusiasts, from their practice of singing hymns*), a statute (known as 2 Henry IV. c. 15) was passed, whereby all persons who propagated the new doctrine by preaching, writing, teaching, or discourse, were required to renounce their heresies, and deliver up all their heretical books, and submit themselves to the church, on pain of being delivered over to the secular arm and burned alive. But although the Commons so far listened to the clergy, they complained of the weight of taxes falling entirely upon the people, while the church, which held a third of all the property in the kingdom, was exempt.

Meantime, the statute against Lollardism, the first actual law in England against heresy, was not allowed to remain a

* In one of the old German dialects, *lollen* or *lullen* signifies to sing as a mother when she *lulls* her babe.

dead letter. Its first victim was William Sawtre, parish priest of Saint Osith's, in London, and formerly of Saint Margaret's, at Lynn in Norfolk, of which living he had been deprived on a charge of heresy in 1399. He petitioned parliament that he might be heard before them on certain religious points. His prayer was granted, and he appeared before the primate Arundel in the Convocation. The charges brought against him touched the important doctrine of transubstantiation, and as in his replies he still persisted that the sacramental bread continued to be bread after consecration, he was delivered over to the secular power to undergo the penalty of the new law. Sawtre was burned in Smithfield in the beginning of March 1401, leaving a name which is still slandered by his persecutors, but which the reformed church will ever hold in deserved respect. William Thorpe, a priest distinguished for learning and ability, was the next victim, who, in all probability, died in prison; and, in 1410, a poor tailor suffered on the spot which witnessed Sawtre's martyrdom. Although crushed by these terrible examples, Lollardism still continued to spread in secret.

Henry V. (of Monmouth), A. D. 1413—1422.

7. Henry of Monmouth, eldest son of Henry of Bolingbroke, succeeded to his father's throne on the 21st of March 1413, and was crowned on the 9th of April following. The stories of his irregular life, when Prince of Wales, are probably exaggerated, but, consecrated as they are by the graphic pen of our great dramatic poet, it is impossible to separate the youth from the witty Falstaff and his dissolute companions. On his accession, however, all was changed: the men who had most severely censured his disorders were called to his councils, and among their number was the Chief-justice Gascoigne.

The first year of Henry's reign was disturbed by a popular commotion in London. The principles of the Lollards had spread extensively among the poorer classes; and the enthusiasm of this new sect, their numbers, and the innovations they desired to introduce, not only into the ecclesiastical hierarchy, but also into the laws of the state, had caused much alarm among the nobility, the great landed proprietors, and the prelates. The king seems to have shared in their apprehensions, and a rumour spread abroad that severe measures would be taken to check the progress of the strolling preachers. Upon this anonymous placards were posted on the church-doors,

stating, that if the Lollards were persecuted, a hundred thousand men would rise in their defence.

The leader of these religious innovators, or rather the man on whose talent they most relied, was Sir John Oldcastle, commonly called Lord Cobham, supposed by some to be the original of Falstaff. If his early life had been dissipated, his maturer years were marked by sincere but ill regulated piety. He was summoned to appear in the primate's court, but resisted the authority of the church, until the king sent an armed force to his castle of Cowling in Kent, when he surrendered, and was taken prisoner to the Tower. Here he was convicted of incorrigible heresy, and delivered over to the secular arm; but before the day of punishment arrived, he succeeded in making his escape. The fury of the church now fell upon the humbler sectarians, thirty of whom suffered in St Giles's Fields.

8. France was at this time torn by factions, which sprung up like weeds in a rank soil during the long madness of Charles VI. The Burgundians and Armagnacs seized the reins of government by turns. All principles of honour and purity were trampled under foot. The several provinces made war upon each other; the best men were either murdered by the populace or handed over to bloodstained tribunals, whenever they were suspected of holding opinions contrary to those of the ruling faction.

Henry V. thought this a favourable opportunity for reviving the claims of his great-grandfather Edward III. to the throne of France. To his peremptory demand of the crown no answer was returned; and about a month later he intimated that he would be satisfied with the fulfilment of the treaty of Bretigny (made in the reign of Edward III.), with the addition of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and part of Provence, together with the hand of Charles's daughter Catherine, and a marriage portion of two millions of crowns. Negotiations were protracted until the middle of April 1415, when Henry announced to his council his intention of invading France to recover his lawful inheritance. A French war had always been popular in England, and under their young and martial king the people hoped for the most brilliant successes. But all his plans were nearly frustrated at the moment of sailing by the discovery of a plot against his life. The principal conspirators, among whom were the Earl of Cambridge, the king's own brother, and Lord Scroop, who always slept in Henry's bed, fell beneath the blow of the executioner.

On the 13th of August, the English army, numbering 30,000 men, landed near Harfleur, and after wasting more than a month in the siege of this insignificant fortress, prepared to march through Normandy, Picardy, and Artois to Calais. Disease and the other casualties of war had reduced Henry's forces to less than 9000 fighting men (one authority rates them as low as 6000), but their courage was undiminished; and although detachments more numerous than his whole army watched his march and cut off all stragglers; although the country was laid waste before him, and provisions could with difficulty be procured, Henry still pushed onwards to the Somme, which he hoped to pass like Edward III.

9. BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.—On reaching the Somme, Henry found every bridge broken down, and every ford strongly fortified, while powerful columns of horse and foot marched parallel with him on the right bank, as he proceeded up the left in the hope of finding some point through which he might make a bold dash. In this he succeeded on the 19th October, and on the 24th he came in sight of the enemy's forces near Agincourt. Retreat or flight was impossible, surrender was not spoken of, and when the morrow dawned, the English calmly prepared to conquer or to die. As Henry rode from rank to rank, he recalled to their memory the glorious victories gained by their ancestors with an equal disparity of numbers: "I would not have a single man more," said he. "If God gives us the victory, the fewer we are the more honour; and, if we lose, the less will be the loss to our country. But we shall not lose; fight as you were wont to do, and before night the pride of our numberless enemies will be humbled to the dust." The disparity was indeed enormous, ranging, according to various estimates, from 60,000 to 100,000 against 9000.

The battle began about noon, and before night this mighty host was scattered. Seven near relations of the King of France had perished; other great lords met with the same fate. There lay on the field 8000 gentlemen, knights, or esquires; 5800 men were buried in three immense pits; many hundreds were more decently interred in the neighbouring churches, or conveyed to their own castles; thousands, who had crawled into the surrounding woods, were left a prey to the wolves and the ravens. The loss of the English did not exceed 1600 men. Among the distinguished prisoners were the Dukes of Orleans and of Bourbon, the Marshal Boucicault, the Counts of Eu, Vendôme, and Richemont, and the Lords of Harcourt and Craon.

The conquerors, sinking under the weight of their booty, moved slowly towards Calais, whence Henry returned to England with his royal and noble captives. He was welcomed with the most enthusiastic joy: at Dover the people rushed into the sea to meet him, and carried him on their shoulders to the beach; and in the streets of the capital wine ran like water, every house was decorated, and every voice shouted a rapturous huzza.

10. It was not until August 1417 that Henry again landed in France with an army amounting to nearly 40,000 men. Many important towns and fortresses in Normandy were reduced, and by the end of July in the following year he was master of the whole of the lower part of that province. The strongly fortified city of Rouen, with a population of 150,000 and a garrison of 20,000 men, held out with great constancy, nor did it surrender until everything, even to the dogs and horses, was eaten, and many thousands had perished of famine.

13th Jan. } The flag of England now floated over the whole of
1419. } Normandy on both sides of the Seine.

While Henry was thus engaged in France, the Scots invaded England, and Sir John Oldcastle left his retreat in Wales. The former were driven back by the Duke of Bedford, the regent; and the latter, after a gallant resistance, was taken and condemned to be hanged as a rebel and burnt as a heretic,—a sentence which was executed in Saint Giles's Fields in the month of December 1417.

After the fall of Rouen, negotiations were entered upon for the settlement of peace; but they entirely failed, owing partly to the insincerity of the French factions, and partly to the nature of Henry's claims. Meanwhile the English troops scoured the neighbourhood of Paris, and frequently advanced to the gates of that city. The treaty of Troyes, signed in May 1420, did not terminate hostilities, although it gave Henry the hand of the Princess Catherine, the present regency of the kingdom, and the succession to the throne of France on the death of the reigning king. In December following, the two sovereigns, Henry and Charles, entered Paris amid the acclamations of the multitude.

The English king now conducted his young and beautiful queen to London, where she was enthusiastically received, and crowned with great magnificence. The royal pair then set out on a progress through England, but were arrested at York by ill tidings from France. The Regent of Scotland

had permitted the Earl of Buchan, his second son, to raise a body of 7000 men for the service of the dauphin. The Duke of Clarence, Henry's brother, and his lieutenant in Normandy, had imprudently marched into Anjou, where he was surprised by the Scots and a few thousand armed peasants under La Fayette. Clarence was defeated and slain, and Buchan, for this seasonable victory, was rewarded with the office of Constable of France. (Battle of Beaujé, 1421.)

11. Henry's irritation would hardly permit him to wait until parliament had voted the supplies he so much needed. Before setting out for the war, he performed an act of policy and justice which ought not to be overlooked. James Stewart, the accomplished king of Scotland, had been pining sixteen years in the splendid solitudes of Windsor Castle. The regent Albany was now dead, and had been succeeded by his son Murdoch, who was no less anxious than his father to prolong his sovereign's captivity. No exertions were made for his release, and perhaps, in the state of factions in his kingdom, James's return might have proved fatal to himself. The Earl of March had been restored by Albany to his forfeited honours and estates, and Douglas was declining in influence. Archibald, earl of Douglas, readily listening to proposals sanctioned and even recommended by his captive master, engaged to serve the King of England, and to follow him to France with 200 archers and as many men-at-arms. King James also agreed to serve in the war, on condition that he should be allowed to revisit Scotland three months after their return from the continent. Several Scottish noblemen, from love to their king, joined Henry's camp at Dover, where in June 1421 about 30,000 men were collected. These troops, rapidly advancing from Calais, obliged the dauphin to raise the siege of Chartres and take refuge at Bourges. The fortresses of Dreux and of Meaux were taken, and with the exception of Maine and Anjou all the northern provinces of France submitted to the English, and the dauphin was restricted to a few unimportant places beyond the Loire. To fill up the measure of Henry's prosperity, a son was born to him in December, and in the following May, Catherine revisited France with her infant. She was everywhere received with the most flattering demonstrations of attachment; and at the great festival of Whitsuntide, the King and Queen of England held their court in the palace of the Louvre.

Henry's grand scheme of conquest seemed now to be ap-

proaching a happy completion, when a serious indisposition, which had long been undermining his constitution, suddenly exhibited an alarming character, and on the 31st of August 1422, the mighty conqueror expired in the tenth year of his reign and the thirty-fourth of his age. A magnificent funeral honoured his remains; and from the church of Notre Dame in Paris, where his body lay in state, it was conveyed with imperial pomp to Westminster Abbey, and there interred near the shrine of Edward the Confessor.

A few years after this, Henry's widow married Owen Tudor, a gentleman who traced his descent from the old Welsh princes. By him she had two sons, Edmund, afterwards earl of Richmond, and Jasper, who became earl of Pembroke. Hence the origin of the Tudor family, which subsequently wore the crown of England.

12. As a sovereign, Henry V. is accountable for the sufferings endured by the Lollards during his reign, although personally he appears to have had little participation in their infliction. It was his policy to conciliate the church, and he was proud of being considered a zealous defender of the faith. With regard to ecclesiastical matters, there were three parties in the state,—the open enemies of the church,—those who desired its reform,—and the determined opponents of any change whatever. The middle party was perhaps the most numerous, and to it the commons belonged, though they generally called for the execution of the laws against the Lollards as disturbers of the public peace, and denounced their doctrines respecting the ecclesiastical revenues as subversive of all the rights of property. The great contest in parliament was between the pope and the heads of the national church; but it is open to doubt whether the statutes against papal patronage were not more injurious than beneficial. One great principle, however, was constantly maintained—the supremacy of the civil over the ecclesiastical courts.

The clergy resolutely opposed all reform or concession, the only deviations from the established standards of faith and worship being in an opposite direction. The primate Arundel endeavoured to prevent the holding of fairs in churchyards on Sundays; and his successor Chicheley forbade the barbersurgeons to keep their shops open on that day. The former prelate affected great zeal for the adoration of the Virgin Mary, amplified the ceremonial of her worship, and made the anniversary of the Visitation a double festival. Several new

saints were added to the kalendar, for each of whom a holiday was set apart. The churches became more crowded with images, and all the old popular superstitions were still sanctioned, among which was the veneration for holy wells. It was during this period that the cup in the eucharist was gradually taken from the laity, beginning with the small and obscure churches. The people were now taught that both the body and the blood of Christ were received at once in the bread, and that the wine was mere wine, given to enable them to swallow the bread more easily. The efficacy of indulgences, and the importance of confession, processions, and pilgrimages, were now insisted on more than ever. Journeys to Rome were still frequent, and a few devout persons continued to find their way to Jerusalem.

13. The general character and conduct of the clergy during this reign do not appear in a very favourable light. In 1415, the university of Oxford laid before Henry V. a catalogue of forty-six abuses, most of which are charges of rapacity and various kinds of profligacy, against the churchmen. Among other things, it is asserted that the debaucheries of the clergy, however notorious, were never punished except by a small fine privately exacted; and about half a century later, Archbishop Bouchier declares that they were wholly destitute of learning and capacity, that they were as profligate as they were ignorant, neglecting their cures, spending their time in the company of loose women, and their incomes in feasting, drinking, and other excesses. Such are the admissions of the friends of the church!

The state of Christian instruction about this time may be gathered from the regulations of a convocation held at York in 1466, in which it is directed that every parish priest shall *preach* to his flock, either by himself or by substitute, *four times* every year, and that in his sermons, which are to be in English, he shall explain in simple language the fourteen articles of faith, the ten commandments, the two precepts of the gospel, the seven works of mercy, the seven mortal sins, and the seven sacraments.

It would appear that Wickliffe's doctrines had penetrated into Scotland, since in the year 1408 one John Resby was burnt at Perth for maintaining no fewer than forty erroneous opinions, two of which were these: that the pope is not Christ's vicar, and that he is not to be esteemed pope if he is a man of wicked life. In the fifteenth century, the Scottish

church was far more independent, both of the see of Rome and of the state, than the English; but at the same time it was more secular and overbearing in political and civil matters.

Henry VI. (of Windsor), A. D. 1422—1461.

14. A babe of nine months old succeeded to the throne of the conqueror of Agincourt. A council of regency with the Duke of Gloucester at its head was appointed to manage the affairs of England; the Duke of Bedford was forthwith acknowledged regent of France; and the care and education of the infant sovereign were intrusted to the Earl of Warwick, and to Henry Beaufort, cardinal and bishop of Winchester, half-brother to Henry IV.

Charles VI. of France expired two months after his victorious rival, and was succeeded by the dauphin, now in his twenty-first year, by the title of Charles VII.

For some time fortune still favoured the arms of England: A.D. }
1423. } at the battle of Crevant, Bedford thoroughly routed the combined forces of the Scots and French, and again at Verneuil in August 1424. The cause of Charles VII. now seemed hopeless; his armies were destroyed; he had neither money nor credit, and only a fourth part of the kingdom acknowledged his rule. But disunion broke out in the English councils, and the tide of victory began to turn. The Duke of Gloucester's marriage with Jacqueline, countess of Hainault, alienated the Duke of Burgundy from the English cause; and his jealousy of Beaufort weakened the government at home. This among other things prevented Bedford from carrying on the war so vigorously as he would have desired; but at length he resolved to lay siege to Orleans, a city advantageously situated on the Loire. On the 12th of October 1428, the Earl of Salisbury took up his positions on both banks of the river, and soon after commenced the attack, but being unable to carry the place by assault, he converted the siege into a blockade. Early in the following year the besieged were reduced to extremity, and offered to surrender the city to the Duke of Burgundy, to be held by him as neutral during the war; but the regent rejected the proposal in language that wounded the pride of the great duke.

Orleans was looked upon as lost, and Charles VII. was preparing to retire with the fragments of his armies into Provence and Dauphiny, when an unexpected event, one of those in-

comprehensible occurrences which frequently change the aspect of human affairs, turned the scale of fortune in his favour.

One day towards the end of February, a short time after the battle of Rouvrai, which had reduced Charles's affairs to the lowest ebb, he was told that his deliverer was at hand—a simple village girl of Domremy in Lorraine. Joan of Arc, who was then in the twentieth year of her age, imagined that she was called by Heaven to the rescue of her country from foreign dominion. At first the stories of her celestial visions were listened to with incredulity, but the people and the army soon caught her enthusiasm. Her first exploit was to enter the beleaguered city of Orleans, where she so inspirited the defenders, and at the same time so depressed the enemy, that the siege was raised in despair, and she went on from victory to victory, until Charles was solemnly anointed and crowned ^{17th July} king at Rheims. ^{1429.} } Town after town surrendered to the king wherever he advanced. Insurrections broke out against the English in every quarter; great lords, who had made separate treaties with them, now took up arms for Charles; some towns overpowered their garrisons; others were taken by storm; and the liliated banner floated even on the coast of Normandy.

15. The English conquests in France were not, however, all lost. Charles signally failed in an attempt on Paris, and again fled beyond the Loire, as Bedford marched against him. In the spring of 1430, the king once more advanced, having now *two* prophetesses in his train, the Maid of Orleans, and one Catherine of La Rochelle, a vulgar imitator of the high-minded girl of Lorraine. Joan's career was run: in a sally from the town of Compiègne she fell into the hands of the Burgundians. Her ungrateful countrymen made no attempt to release her either by ransom, exchange of prisoners, or other means. After being successively confined in the castles of Beaurevoir, Arras, and Crotoy, she was transferred at the end of six months to Rouen. The Bishop of Beauvais, to whom Joan had been sold for 10,000 francs, claimed the right of trying her as a witch, and summoned priests and lawyers to assist in the solemn mockery. During sixteen days she was exposed to their searching interrogatories, and at length articles of condemnation were drawn up and submitted to the university of Paris and to several French prelates of the highest rank. All agreed that Joan was heretical, an impious impostor, and deserving death by fire. Several of her judges

were averse to this cruel sentence, and there is evidence to show that the English would have been satisfied with a public exposure and imprisonment for life. Her own countrymen of the Burgundian faction were the most eager for her destruction. The clergy of the royalist party never made any attempt to prove that she was a good catholic; and infamous as it was in her enemies to burn her, it was still more infamous in Charles and his friends to abandon her and forget her as a thing that had answered its purpose and was no longer of any use. On the 30th of May 1431, she was brought to the stake in the old market-place of Rouen. As she knelt and prayed aloud, fervently though in tears, Cardinal Beaufort rose and left his seat, unable to bear the lamentable sight. As the smoke and flames rose around her, she was seen pressing a crucifix to her bosom, and the last word she was heard to utter, with eyes uplifted to heaven, was the name of Jesus.

To counteract in some measure the successes of the unfortunate Joan, and the coronation of Charles VII. at Rheims, the youthful Henry, after being crowned King of England at Westminster, was brought to Paris, there to go through the same ceremony as king of France (December 1431).

The withdrawal of the Duke of Burgundy from the English alliance, and the decease of the great Bedford (1435), were fatal to the cause of England in France. Still for ten years longer the gallant Talbot, afterwards earl of Shrewsbury, maintained his footing in Normandy, and at one time nearly retook the capital, which had been compelled to surrender in April 1436. The Duke of Burgundy laid siege to Calais, but on hearing of the approach of reinforcements under the Duke of Gloucester, his army of 30,000 men fled in a shameful panic, leaving their baggage, artillery, and munitions of war behind them. In 1439, Talbot recovered Harfleur, in despite of its strong garrison, with an army in the rear far superior to his own, and a fleet of ships which annoyed him in the river and on the coast. Yet the English cause gradually declined, and both parties, wearied with hostilities, readily agreed to a truce in 1444. The horrors of war had been aggravated by a pestilence which depopulated the rural districts of France and England: famine followed in its train, and in two years the loss of life by both these scourges was almost incalculable.

16. Henry of Windsor had now completed his twenty-third year, but he possessed none of the qualities necessary for a king at that turbulent period. It was, however, thought that

all his deficiencies might be supplied by marrying him to a princess of spirit and intelligence. Margaret of Anjou was the lady selected, and instead of bringing a dower to her husband, Anjou and Maine were assigned to her father. The Earl of Suffolk negotiated the marriage, and along with him the new queen monopolized the whole authority of the government. This excited the jealousy of Gloucester, "the good Duke Humphrey," as the people called him, and his ruin was accordingly resolved on. Four years previously, his wife, Eleanor Cobham, had been accused of endeavouring to destroy the king by witchcraft and raise her husband to the crown. She was sentenced to do public penance in London, and was afterwards imprisoned for life in the crypt under the cathedral of St German in the Isle of Man (1441). In the parliament held at Bury St Edmunds in 1447, Gloucester was arrested on a charge of high treason, and a fortnight after was found dead in his bed. His body bore no outward marks of violence, yet it was suspected that he had been privately murdered. Suffolk seized the estates of the deceased duke, which he divided among his own family and devoted partisans.

The time had now arrived when by the stipulations of the marriage contract between Henry VI. and Margaret of Anjou, the city of Mans was to receive a French garrison. The governor refused to surrender; but Dunois laid siege to the place and obliged him to capitulate. With Mans fell other cities and castles in Maine and Anjou; and in the year 1451, the crown of England no longer possessed a foot of ground in France, except Calais and the marshy district commanded by its batteries.

The disgrace of these losses was not easily borne by the high-spirited English. At Portsmouth the populace rose and murdered the Bishop of Chichester, keeper of the privy seal, and Suffolk, now become a duke, was loudly accused of betraying his country. In 1450, he was impeached by the parliament, and condemned to be banished for five years. He went to Ipswich and embarked for the continent, but the vessel in which he sailed was intercepted by a man-of-war, whose captain took him on board. On the third day after, he was beheaded, and his body lay some time exposed on the beach near Dover, till the king ordered it to be delivered to his widow. No investigation was made, and the people were rejoiced at his death.

17. JACK CADE.—The king and queen had not recovered from their grief at the loss of the favourite, when they were alarmed by the intelligence that the men of Kent were in a state of revolt, headed by an Irish adventurer named John Cade. He pretended that he was descended from the earls of March, styled himself the Duke of York's cousin, and assumed the noble name of Mortimer, the influence of which was so great that in a few days he was at the head of 20,000 men. He addressed two petitions to the king, one of which was entitled *The complaints of the commons of Kent*, and the other *The requests by the captain of the great assembly in Kent*. These petitions complained of the alienation of the crown revenues, the luxury and extravagance of the royal family, the exactions of the sheriffs and tax-gatherers, the corrupt influence of the lords in the elections, and the ruinous delays of justice; they called for the punishment of four notorious sheriffs, and of the traitors who had caused the deaths of the Dukes of Gloucester, Exeter, and Warwick, and Cardinal Beaufort; and, finally, they required that the relations of Suffolk should be banished from the court, and that the great offices of the crown should be intrusted to the Dukes of York, Norfolk, Exeter, and Buckingham. The king commissioned Sir Humphrey Stafford to disperse the rebels; but Cade defeated him at Sevenoaks (24th June 1450), slew him, and advanced again to Blackheath, whence the rebels again addressed the king, promising to lay down their arms, provided Lord Say, a very obnoxious minister, and Cromer his son-in-law, sheriff of Kent, were punished. The former was accordingly sent to the Tower, the king retired to Kenilworth, and the royal army was disbanded.

Cade now took up his quarters in Southwark, and entered the city of London, where his troops observed the strictest discipline. Say, who had fallen into his hands, was beheaded in Cheapside, and the Sheriff of Kent soon after met with the same fate. But divisions now began to appear among the rebels: they retired to Rochester, and their leader, fearing that they would deliver him up to the government, fled towards the Sussex coast. He was pursued and slain by one Iden, and his head was stuck upon London Bridge. The amnesty promised while the insurgents were in possession of the capital was revoked, and a great number perished on the scaffold.

The Duke of York, whose name the rebels had put prominently forward, and whose title to the throne, through Edmund

Mortimer, earl of March, was superior to that of the reigning sovereign, was at this time governor of Ireland, where he had gained much credit by the ability he displayed in repressing an insurrection of the native Irish. Resigning this command, he suddenly appeared in England in the end of August 1451, and after a brief visit to the king, retired to his castle at Fotheringay. The Duke of Somerset was supported by the court as the nearest male relative of King Henry, and the head of the younger Lancastrian branch; but it was under his government in France that Normandy had been lost,—a circumstance which rendered him nearly as unpopular as the late Duke of Suffolk. Two years of intrigue and discontent followed, during which several dark crimes were committed by both factions, and many fruitless attempts were made to effect a reconciliation.

18. In the beginning of the year 1452, the Duke of York, while proclaiming his fidelity to the king, levied an army on the Welsh borders, and advanced to London, the gates of which were shut against him. He then turned aside into Kent, where he hoped to be joined by the malcontents who had followed Cade. In this he was disappointed, and the royal army coming up with him near Dartford, he was glad to agree to a peaceful negotiation. The result was that York retired to his castle of Wigmore on the frontiers of Wales, where he lived perfectly quiet until brought forward by the movements in parliament.

The king now sank into a state of mental and bodily incapacity which unfitted him for the duties of his station, and Richard duke of York was nominated protector and defender of the realm of England (1454). He might have seized upon the royal authority; but he showed such moderation, that the Lancastrians, taking courage, were enabled to procure a declaration by parliament that the title of protector carried with it no other prerogative than the right of commanding the army and presiding in the council, and was revocable at the king's pleasure; also that Henry's son, now about a year old, and already created prince of Wales and earl of Chester, should, on attaining his majority, be protector *of right*, in the event of the king's malady being prolonged.

WAR OF THE ROSES.—About the end of 1454, Henry's health having improved, and his memory returned, he resumed the reins of government, and restored the Duke of Somerset to liberty. This measure, which it was thought

would be followed by the restoration of the unpopular minister, irritated a part of the nation, and induced York once more to take up arms. He was joined by the Duke of Norfolk and the Nevilles, the latter being kinsmen of his wife Cicely Neville, daughter of the Earl of Westmoreland. The chief of this powerful family was Richard earl of Salisbury, one of whose sons Richard, by his marriage with Anne Beauchamp, heiress of the house of Warwick, acquired the earldom of that name, and is known in history as the "king-maker." On the 22d of May 1455, the armies of the king and of the rebels met at St Albans: the royalists were defeated, and Henry, who was slightly wounded, fell into the hands of the Yorkists. Duke Richard again became supreme, and in November the parliament once more declared him protector. On the 25th February 1456, Henry suddenly appeared before the legislative body, and demanded back from the lords all his prerogatives as king. York resigned the protectorate without a murmur, and retired to his estates. Most of the public officers were changed, and the friends of Somerset, Northumberland, and others who had fallen at St Albans, openly avowed their determination to inflict a sanguinary vengeance.

Endeavours were made to reconcile the conflicting parties, and a hollow pacification was brought about, the chiefs of the two factions going in procession to St Paul's. In May following, Warwick, who had retained the governorship of Calais, attacked a strong fleet belonging to the Hanse Towns, and captured several vessels. Of this the Hanseatic League complained, and Warwick was summoned to court to clear himself of their charges. A few days after his arrival, he fled back in haste to Calais, alleging that his life was in danger from the king's party. Troops were again levied both by the Yorkists and Lancastrians: they met at Bloreheath, on the borders of Staffordshire, where the latter were defeated with a loss of two thousand men, among whom was their general, Lord Audley (1459).

Salisbury now joined the Duke of York at Ludlow, and Warwick brought a strong force with him from Calais. The Lancastrians, who had 60,000 men under arms, advanced from Worcester against the Yorkists; but the desertion of Sir Andrew Trollop with his veterans compelled the latter to disperse in every direction. This was in the middle of October, and a month later a parliament met at Coventry, which attainted the Duke of York, his wife and his sons, the Earl and Coun-

tess of Salisbury, their son the Earl of Warwick, Lord Clinton, and many others. York found safety in Ireland, where he was very popular, and Warwick retired to Calais with the Earl of Salisbury and the young Earl of March, Duke Richard's heir. Somerset was appointed to supersede Warwick in his post, but as soon as that nobleman appeared off the harbour, the batteries opened upon him, and he was glad to escape to an adjoining port. While there, all his seamen went over to Warwick, taking their ships with them, and the "kingmaker" thus became master of the Channel.

19. Towards the end of June 1460, Warwick again landed in England, where he was well received, and before he reached London, his little army of 1500 men was swelled to 30,000. After a triumphant passage through the capital, with Edward the heir of York at his side, he advanced to Northampton, where he defeated the Lancastrians, and Henry a second time became a prisoner. Queen Margaret and her son Edward, after many adventures, escaped to Scotland.

The victors immediately summoned a new parliament, which repealed all the acts passed at Coventry in the preceding year. The Duke of York returned from Ireland, and took possession of the royal palace as his own. His next step was to make a formal demand of the crown; but the lords hesitated to grant his prayer, and the king firmly refused to abdicate. At last a compromise was suggested, which York was prudent enough to accept. Henry was to retain his crown during the remainder of his life; but at his death it was to devolve to Richard and his heirs, to the exclusion of Prince Edward, son of Margaret of Anjou.

Meanwhile the Lancastrians were not inactive, and the spirited Margaret was everywhere exciting her party to resume their arms in defence of her son. Soon a powerful army was collected, and the hostile factions confronted each other near Wakefield in Yorkshire, on the 30th of December 1460. The contest was terrific; each party was fighting for existence, and the combatants displayed the most savage fury. The royalists remained masters of the field. The Duke of York was slain with 2000 of his followers; Salisbury was taken and beheaded; the Earl of Rutland, York's second son, was stabbed by Lord Clifford in cold blood. Margaret vented her rage on the lifeless body of Duke Richard: his head was cut off and stuck upon one of the gates of York, with a paper crown around its brows. No quarter was given during the

battle, and many of those who escaped fell by the hands of the executioner.

As soon as Edward, earl of March, received news of the death of his father and brother, he vowed to avenge them. He was then lying at Gloucester with a considerable force, whence he hastened to intercept the queen's return to the capital. Changing his design, however, he moved towards the Lancastrian army, one portion of which he defeated after a dreadful conflict at Mortimer's Cross near Hereford (2d Feb. 1461). The enemy lost 3600 men; Owen Tudor, the second husband of Catherine of France, was made prisoner, and, with eight other noblemen of rank, was beheaded at Hereford a few days after, in retaliation for the queen's executions in Yorkshire.

Meantime Warwick was attacked and routed by Margaret at St Albans, and the king was again freed from the hands of his enemies (17th Feb.) But this victory was of little moment. The army of the Earl of March, now Duke of York, was speedily reinforced, every town and village on his march furnishing him with recruits, and the scattered forces of the Earl of Warwick were now collected under Edward's banner. London was in favour of the Yorkists; and the cruelties of the queen, with the licentious behaviour of her troops, exasperated all but her immediate followers. On the 25th of February, Edward entered the capital as a victorious monarch; and, less scrupulous than his father, he determined to seize the throne at once. On the 4th of March 1461, he was proclaimed king, being then not twenty-one years of age. The *white* rose now bloomed above the *red*.

Such was the conclusion of Henry's reign, and thus fell the son of the mighty conqueror of Agincourt. He was a prince of mild and religious character, fitter for the quiet retirement of private life than the stormy atmosphere of a throne. He displayed many amiable qualities, but possessed neither the health of body nor the strength of mind which might have enabled him to overcome the difficulties of his situation.

EXERCISES.

1. When did Henry IV. mount the throne? What was done by the parliament immediately summoned? What was the origin of the house of York? Why were the Wars of the Roses so called? Describe the manner in which the great barons conspired.

2. Mention the principal circumstances of Henry the Fourth's war with Scotland. What occurred in Wales? What were the results of the battle of Shrewsbury?

3. What was done in Scotland to give uneasiness to Henry? What nobleman rebelled against him? What did he do to the family of the King of Scotland? Give an account of the proceedings of parliament.

4. How was the war with France continued? What attempts were made on the English possessions in France in 1406? Describe the circumstances of Henry's death.

5. How did the people achieve their liberties from kings whose title was questionable? What powers did the houses of parliament assert? How did the Commons use their power over the supplies?

6. Describe the sect of the Lollards and their proceedings. What statute was passed against them? Who was its first victim? Who was William Thorpe?

7. What was the character of Henry of Monmouth after his accession? How did commotions arise early in his reign? Mention the principal events in the career of Lord Cobham.

8. What was the state of France at this time? What claims did Henry V. make on that country? What interrupted an invasion? What circumstances attended the king's march through France?

9. When was the battle of Agincourt fought? Mention the principal events of the battle? What took place when it was over?

10. What was the result of Henry's landing in France in 1417? Describe the fate of Lord Cobham. When was the treaty of Troyes negotiated? What effect had it on the relations of England and France?

11. Describe the circumstances of the release of the King of Scots. What were the farther events of the French war? What event interrupted the conquests of Henry V.?

12. What was Henry's policy in ecclesiastical matters? What part did the Commons take? Mention some of the religious observances which were peculiar to this reign.

13. What did the University of Oxford bring under the notice of Henry V.? What did Archbishop Bouchier say of the clergy? What regulations did the convocation at York make about preaching?

14. How old was Henry VI. at his accession? Describe the progress of the war in France. What were the circumstances of the siege of Orleans? Who was Joan of Arc? Give an account of her first exploits.

15. How was Joan treated by her countrymen? What was the conduct of the Bishop of Beauvais? Describe the tragedy which occurred in the market-place of Rouen. What were the transactions in France after the death of Joan?

16. Whom did Henry VI. marry? Who was called "the good Duke Humphrey," and what proceedings were taken against him? What was the extent of the English possessions in France in the year 1451? What was the effect in England of the loss of the conquests?

17. Under whom did the people of Kent revolt? What were the complaints of the commons of Kent? Describe the progress of Cade. What was the Duke of York's title to the throne?

18. Describe the proceedings of Richard, duke of York. Who was named protector of the kingdom? Who was the "kingmaker"? What was the result of the battle of St Albans? Under what circumstances did the Duke of York cease to be protector? How was the Yorkist party dispersed?

19. Describe the progress of Warwick when he landed in England in 1460. What was the compromise between the Duke of York and King Henry? What were the chief circumstances of the battle of Wakefield? Describe the succeeding events in the dispute.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE DYNASTY OF YORK, A. D. 1461—1485.

THREE SOVEREIGNS.

Edward IV.—Battle of Towton—Queen Margaret—Punishment of Sir Ralph Gray—Marriage with Elizabeth Woodville—Captivity and Escape of the King—Restoration of Henry—Battles of Barnet and Tewkesbury—War with France—Treaty of Pecquigny—Murder of the Duke of Clarence—**Edward V.**—Regency of Gloucester—Execution of Hastings—Sermon at Paul's Cross—**Richard III.**—Murder of the Royal Princes—Insurrection against the Usurper—Battle of Bosworth—Progress of the People—Importance of English Commerce—Foreign Trade of Scotland and Ireland.

Edward IV., A. D. 1461—1483.

1. THE new king did not linger long in the capital to enjoy his recent elevation. The Lancastrians were still in the field, and by the middle of March, Queen Margaret had collected an army of 60,000 men. To oppose this force, Edward and Warwick advanced at the head of 49,000. They met at Towton on the 29th of March, and the battle commenced in the midst of a heavy snow-storm. The combat was prolonged from nine in the morning until three in the afternoon, when the Lancastrians fled, leaving 28,000 dead on the field. The king had ordered that no quarter should be given: the Earl of Northumberland died fighting; the Earls of Devonshire and Wiltshire were taken and beheaded. The Duke of Somerset, the commander-in-chief, with Queen Margaret, her husband, and her son, escaped into Scotland. The slaughter in this battle exceeded all the previous contests between the rival roses; the total loss on both sides amounting to nearly 40,000 men.

Edward entered York shortly after his victory, whence, after executing some of his prisoners, he marched to Newcastle, sent Lord Montague to the relief of Carlisle, then besieged by the Scots, issued orders to retake Berwick, which Henry had surrendered to the Scottish army, and returned to Westminster, where he was crowned with great ceremony on the 29th of June 1461.

The parliament, which the new king assembled in November, solemnly recognised the rights of his family, revoked all

the concessions and donations of the three preceding Lancastrian monarchs, who were declared tyrants and usurpers, and passed bills of attainder against Henry, his queen, and his son, and all the leaders of their faction. But Margaret was still resolute and active as ever, seeking aid in every quarter. From Louis XI. she obtained 20,000 crowns and 2000 men, with whom she returned to England. After some trifling successes in Northumberland, where she had been joined by the English exiles and a few troops from Scotland, she was compelled to flee by the advance of Warwick, and reached Berwick in a wretched fishing-boat. She soon after returned to the continent, where she remained some years, never relaxing her efforts to raise up enemies against Edward, and stir up his subjects to fresh revolts.

In April 1464, the Lancastrians once more took the field, but were defeated at Hedgeley Moor, near Wooler, and again at Hexham. The leaders of this movement who survived the battle were beheaded. Sir Ralph Gray, who had deserted from the Yorkists, was treated with unprecedented severity at Doncaster. His knightly spurs were struck off by the king's cook; his coat of arms was torn from his body; and another coat reversed was put upon his back; he was sent barefoot to the town's end, then laid upon a hurdle and drawn to the scaffold, where the executioner spat in his face before striking off his head. About a year after, Henry, who had lain concealed in Yorkshire, was betrayed by a monk, and lodged in the Tower.

2. Edward's ambition was satisfied. His insatiable vengeance slept, and he indulged in milder but more engrossing passions, which caused all the subsequent troubles of his reign, and drove him a fugitive into foreign lands. Jacquetta of Luxemburg, widow of the great Duke of Bedford, had taken a second husband, Sir Richard Woodville, created Lord Rivers by Henry VI. One day, during a hunting excursion, Edward alighted at her manor of Grafton, near Stony Stratford, and was much struck by the beauty of her daughter Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, a Lancastrian who had fallen in the second battle of Saint Albans, and whose estates had been forfeited. The lovely widow threw herself at the monarch's feet, entreating him to reverse the attainder of her late husband in favour of her innocent and helpless children. The result of this interview was, that Edward contracted a private marriage with Elizabeth Gray, which he made known

five months after in a great council held in the royal abbey of Reading. In May of the following year she was solemnly crowned at Westminster.

The new queen immediately profited by her influence over her husband's affections to exalt her own family. Edward's obligations to the Nevils had been so great, that most of the offices of government were conferred upon them. Warwick was chief minister, general, and admiral, as well as chamberlain, warden of the west marches, and governor of Calais; his brother, Lord Montague, the victor of Hedgeley Moor and Hexham, was rewarded by the title and estates of the Percys, with the wardenship of the east marches; the Bishop of Exeter, the third brother, was made chancellor, and raised to the archiepiscopal see of York. The Woodvilles and the Grays now claimed a share in these good things, and in a short time contracted five or six profitable matrimonial alliances, five heirs of dukes or earls being united to the queen's five unmarried sisters. In one of these matches they offended the Nevils. Warwick had solicited the hand of the Duke of Exeter's heiress for his own nephew; but by the queen's influence that lady was contracted to Thomas Gray, her eldest son by her former marriage. This powerful house was still further irritated by making Earl Rivers treasurer in the place of Lord Mountjoy, and by appointing Sir Richard Woodville lord high constable instead of the Earl of Worcester.

In 1467, the misunderstanding between Edward and the Nevils was brought to a crisis by the union of Charles, duke of Burgundy, with Margaret of York, the king's sister, whose hand had been sought by one of the French princes. Warwick was sent on an embassy to France to arrange the match with one of the sons of Louis XI., and matters appeared to be proceeding satisfactorily, when the great earl found on his return to London that all his negotiations had been frustrated by the intrigues of the queen's relations. He retired to his estates in ill humour, and Edward, pretending that he was in danger from Warwick's partisans, surrounded himself with a strong guard, and banished all the Nevils from court. The breach was temporarily healed by the interference of their common friends; but it was generally felt that the reconciliation was far from being sincere.

3. The Duke of Clarence, Edward's second brother, jealous of the great power possessed by the queen's relatives, attached himself with all the ardour of youth to the Earl of

Warwick, whose fair daughter, Isabella, had inspired him with a tender passion ; and notwithstanding the opposition of Edward, the parties were married at Calais in July 1469. At the same time the country people of Yorkshire broke out in insurrection. The general cry was for the removal of the queen's relations from the king's councils. Edward immediately proceeded against them, but his army was routed at Edgecote, and in the pursuit Earl Rivers and Sir John Woodville, father and brother of the queen, fell into the hands of the insurgents, by whom they were beheaded. At this juncture Warwick arrived from Calais, and found Edward in a most unhappy condition at Olney, almost all his friends having deserted him. A word from the great earl dispersed the rebels ; but the king remained a captive in the hands of his liberators, by whom he was carried to the strong castle of Middleham. Thus England had two kings, both of whom were prisoners.

At this crisis the Lancastrians rose in arms, but Warwick, who had as yet no intention of restoring Henry, marched northwards to meet them. They were easily dispersed, and their leader was taken prisoner and beheaded. The events of this period are extremely obscure ; but it would appear from the result that Warwick had obtained extensive concessions from the captive Edward. On the king's return to the capital, a general amnesty was granted to all those who had taken up arms against their sovereign ; Clarence and Warwick were restored to favour, and seemed to have recovered all their former influence.

But this apparent reconciliation was of short duration, for, notwithstanding the mutual protestations of parties, their distrust and resentment could not be altogether concealed. One day, about twelve weeks after this family peace, as Edward was washing his hands, previous to taking his seat at a great entertainment given by the Archbishop of York, at his manor of the Moor in Hertfordshire, an attendant whispered in his ear that an armed band was lurking near the house. Without stopping to inquire into the accuracy of this report, the king secretly mounted his horse and galloped off to Windsor. The Duchess of York, the king's mother, brought about a second reconciliation, as hollow as the first, when suddenly an insurrection broke out among the common people of Lincolnshire, who complained of the extortion and oppression of the purveyors and other officers of the royal household.

Clarence and Warwick were sent against the rebels ; but Edward, marching from a different quarter, reached them first, and defeated them at Erpingham in Rutlandshire (12th March 1470). The leaders who had not fallen in battle were sent to the block. The king now openly turned against his two lieutenants, who, it was reported, would have joined the insurgents on the following day. The "kingmaker" disbanded his forces and fled into Devonshire, whence, with his wife, daughter, and several other ladies, besides Clarence and a large number of friends, he sailed for Calais. On reaching this harbour, he found the guns pointed against his ships, and was compelled to land at Harfleur, where he was received with great cordiality and respect.

4. RESTORATION OF HENRY.—At the court of Louis XI., Warwick met the fallen Lancastrian Queen Margaret of Anjou and her son. It must have been a strange interview. The earl had accused the queen of an attempt to murder him, and knew that she had sent his old father, his friends, and associates, to the scaffold. Margaret had cursed the name of Warwick for fifteen long years of misfortune and humiliation, for through his means her husband was a prisoner, and she and her son were exiles, dependent on foreign bounty. A common interest now united them ; the earl engaged to restore the Lancastrian line, and Prince Edward, Margaret's son, married the Lady Anne, Warwick's second daughter. In case there should be no male issue from this marriage, the crown was to devolve on Edward's brother.

Clarence, who by this arrangement saw another claimant interposed between himself and the throne, determined to desert the Lancastrian cause at the first favourable opportunity. Meanwhile, the strangest want of foresight marked all King Edward's movements, although his brother-in-law, Charles the Rash, duke of Burgundy, repeatedly warned him to put his kingdom in a posture of defence, and even informed him of the port at which Warwick intended to land. On the 13th Sept. 1470, the earl debarked on the coast of Devonshire, and in five or six days the whole country flocked to his standard. Edward, who was in the north, returned to Nottingham, whither the "kingmaker" rapidly hastened. The king was deserted by nearly all his troops, and compelled to flee to Holland in great distress, not even having sufficient money to pay the seamen for carrying him over. Eleven days had sufficed to complete his ruin.

Warwick now returned to London, and King Henry VI. was released from the Tower and restored to his royal title. In this rapid revolution no blood was shed, save that of the Earl of Worcester, who was hated by the people for his cruelty.

At the news of Henry's restoration, Louis XI. paid to Margaret the same honours as to his own queen; public rejoicings took place, and an ambassador was sent to London, who concluded a treaty of peace and commerce for fifteen years. The Dukes of Somerset and Exeter, who, in fear of Edward's emissaries, had long lived in obscurity, hastened to the queen, to assist in the arrangements she was making for her return to England with her son; but contrary winds retarded their departure, and a new revolution plunged them once more into an abyss of sorrow and wretchedness.

5. BATTLE OF BARNET.—On the 12th of March 1471, about five months after his flight, Edward reappeared off the coast of Suffolk with an armament supplied to him by the Duke of Burgundy. Four days afterwards he landed at Ravenspurg, in Yorkshire, where Henry of Bolingbroke had disembarked when he came to dethrone Richard II. Treachery weakened the Lancastrian army: Montague, Warwick's brother, made no effort to arrest the progress of the Yorkist forces, which barely exceeded 1200 men; the Duke of Clarence deserted with all his adherents, and the capital joyfully received the returning monarch. On Barnet Common, about twelve miles from London, the Yorkist and Lancastrian armies encountered each other. The battle began at four o'clock in the morning of Easter Sunday, and lasted until ten, during which time there was a thick mist raised, as it was believed, by a celebrated magician, Friar Bungy. None of the great Lancastrian lords escaped, except the Duke of Somerset and the Earl of Oxford, and the common dead, amounting to about a thousand of both parties, were buried on the field, where a chapel was erected for the good of their souls. The bodies of Earl Warwick and his brother Montague were carried to London, and King Henry was sent back to the Tower. But Margaret called the victor again into the field only five days after this decisive battle. She had landed at Plymouth on the very day of the kingmaker's defeat and death; but no enthusiasm marked her progress through the country. At Tewkesbury her little army was cut to pieces, and she and her son fell into the hands of their enemies. The Prince of Wales, who was

now in his eighteenth year, was taken before the conqueror. "What brought you to England?" demanded the ungenerous king. "My father's crown and my own inheritance," replied the spirited youth. Upon this Edward brutally struck him on the mouth with his iron glove, and then Clarence and Gloucester despatched him with their swords in the king's tent. Another act of singular atrocity marked this bloody day. A party of the chiefs who had taken refuge in a church at Tewkesbury were dragged from the foot of the altar and beheaded. Margaret lived five years the prisoner of her conqueror, when she was ransomed by Louis XI., and died in France about eleven years after this fatal battle. Edward returned in triumph to London, and on the following morning King Henry was found dead in the Tower, the Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III., having, according to the popular rumour, murdered him with his own hands.

The triumphant party now resolved to show no mercy: some of the Lancastrian leaders were secretly assassinated; others were imprisoned in different castles; and the rest escaped to the continent, where, for the most part, they lived in extreme poverty.

The young Prince Edward, who had been born during his father's flight to Holland, was now created Prince of Wales, and recognised as lawful heir to the crown. Peace reigned everywhere but in the breasts of the three royal brothers. The Duke of Clarence, who had married Warwick's eldest daughter, now demanded the estates of his deceased father-in-law; but Richard of Gloucester, desirous of sharing the prize, proposed to marry Anne, the earl's youngest daughter and Prince Edward's widow. The marriage took place after much dispute, and the property was divided between the two daughters, the widowed countess being so much overlooked in this allotment that she was reduced to absolute want.

6. After enduring so many of its miseries, it might have been expected that the English nation would have been tired of war; but Edward, inflamed by the representations of the Duke of Burgundy, and desirous of punishing the French king for the favour he had shown to the Lancastrians, sent a herald to demand from Louis the crown of France as his inheritance. He followed this up by collecting an army of 16,000 men, with which he landed at Calais on the 22d of June 1475. Burgundy failed to support Edward, as he had promised, and during two months the English forces lay in-

active at Peronne. Louis XI., who was more inclined to treat than to fight, agreed to all the demands of the invader, and at Pecquigny a treaty of peace was signed between the two countries. The principal articles were, that Louis should pay instantly the sum of 75,000 crowns, with an annuity of 50,000 crowns to the English king; that he should marry the dauphin to Edward's eldest daughter Elizabeth; or, in case of her death, to her sister Mary, on the parties attaining a proper age; and that a truce for seven years, together with a free trade, should be secured between the two countries. Many of the English courtiers were besides largely bribed by the wily Frenchman. This treaty was most unpopular in England, but those who had profited by it cared little for the dissatisfaction of the people.

King Edward had never forgiven Clarence's defection to the Lancastrian party, and appears to have watched for a favourable opportunity of punishing his brother. This soon presented itself. In 1476, the duke lost his wife Isabella, and one of her female attendants was executed for poisoning her. About the same time, Charles the Rash was killed at the battle of Nanci, and Clarence immediately sought the hand of his daughter and heiress, Mary of Burgundy. Edward opposed this with all his might, and the duke indulged in the most incautious language, which was industriously repeated by his enemies. Stacy, a priest of his household, and Thomas Burdett, a gentleman in his service, were tried and convicted of having recourse to magic to hasten the death of Lord Beauchamp, by melting certain waxen images before a slow fire. They both died protesting their innocence; and Clarence, for attempting to prove before the council that his servants had met with an unjust doom, was committed to the Tower, for what was called an interference with justice. On the 16th of January 1478, a parliament was summoned, before which the king appeared in person to prosecute his own brother at the bar of the Lords. The duke was accused of dealing with the devil by means of conjurors and necromancers; of having plotted to dethrone the king and disinherit his children; of spreading a rumour that his majesty was guilty of the black art and secret poisoning, and that he was, besides, illegitimate, and consequently without right to the crown. He was also accused of still intriguing with the Lancastrians for the overthrow of the reigning monarch. Clarence vehemently denied every charge, but was found guilty, and received sentence of

death on the 7th of February. On the 18th of the same month, or, according to others, on the 11th of March, it was rumoured that the duke had died in the Tower, the popular belief being that his brothers had secretly caused him to be drowned in a butt of malmsey wine.

By the treaty of Pecquigny, the dauphin was to marry Edward's eldest daughter as soon as she was of proper age. She was now sixteen, and yet the French court did not claim her. The wily Louis XI., seeing that his son's marriage with the Princess Margaret of Burgundy would be of more advantage to the power and tranquillity of his states than an alliance with Edward, did not hesitate to break his word, without paying any regard to the threats of the insulted monarch. When the news of this perfidy reached England, Edward became furious with rage, vowing that he would carry such a war into France as had not yet been seen in that country. His passion became fatal: a slight indisposition which he had neglected assumed the most alarming appearance; and the king, whose constitution was debilitated by his dissolute life, expired after a few weeks' illness in the twenty-first year of his reign and the forty-second of his age (9th April 1483).

Edward V., A. D. 1483.

7. The Prince of Wales, who was residing at Ludlow when his father died, was immediately proclaimed king by the title of Edward V. Lord Rivers, a nobleman of literary habits, who had conferred an inestimable service on England by patronizing Caxton, the introducer of the recently discovered art of printing, had undertaken to direct the studies of his royal nephew, and to him the queen sent orders to conduct the youthful monarch to London with an escort sufficient to guard against every hostile attempt. At this the enemies of the Woodvilles took alarm, and opposed the execution of a plan in which they saw only their own destruction. Lord Hastings declared that he would immediately withdraw to his government at Calais, and the intimidated queen recalled her orders.

Gloucester was in the Scottish marches at the head of an army devoted to his service, when he received intelligence of his brother's death. Hastening his return to the capital, he ordered, as he passed through York, a grand funeral-service to be performed in the cathedral for the defunct king. He next collected all the nobles and gentlemen of that neighbourhood, swore allegiance to Edward V., and received their oaths

of fealty. He then resumed his march with a greatly increased number of followers.

On the same day that Edward reached Stony Stratford, Gloucester arrived at Northampton, only ten miles distant. Here he was met by Rivers and Lord Gray, whom he received with great courtesy and invited to sup with him. In the evening the Duke of Buckingham joined the party, and on the morrow they all rode in company to wait upon the king. The two dukes bent their knees before the royal boy, but immediately after seized Rivers and Gray, whom, with Sir Thomas Vaughan and Sir Richard Hawse, they committed to close confinement in Pontefract Castle. From that time Edward V. remained a prisoner in the hands of the two dukes.

As soon as the queen-mother was informed of her brother's arrest, she fled to the sanctuary at Westminster, taking with her the Duke of York her second son, and her five daughters. Meanwhile Hastings, who appears to have been a dupe in the whole transaction, assured the people that the two dukes were loyal, and acting for the public good. On the 4th of May, Gloucester entered London, riding bareheaded before his nephew, who was lodged in the Tower, as the place of greatest safety. The lords in council appointed the 22d of June for the coronation, and gave the post of Protector to the Duke of Gloucester, who immediately styled himself, "Protector and defender, great chamberlain, constable, and lord high admiral of England."

Richard took up his residence in Crosby House, and Hastings with a minority of the council used to meet in the Tower; the latter imagining he had outwitted the cunning Gloucester, and even boasting of it. On the 13th of June, the Protector suddenly entered the Tower and took his seat at the council table. After some cheerful conversation with the various lords, he left the room; in about an hour he returned with an angry countenance, and asked what those persons deserved who had plotted his destruction. Hastings replied that they deserved death. Then laying bare his left arm to the elbow, he declared that its withered state was caused by the sorcery and witchcraft of the queen and Jane Shore one of the late king's mistresses. Hastings was bold enough to say that *if* they had done so heinously they certainly deserved punishment. "What!" rejoined the Protector, "thou servest me with *ifs* and with *ands*! I tell thee they have done so, and that I will make good on thy body, traitor!" He then struck the table violently with his

hands, when the room was immediately filled with armed men. "I arrest thee, traitor!" cried Gloucester to Hastings, "and by Saint Paul I will not dine until I see thy head off." He was forthwith hurried off to the green by the side of the Tower chapel, and his head was struck off on a log of wood which chanced to be lying there. At the same time Lord Stanley, the Archbishop of York, and the Bishop of Ely were confined in separate cells. On this very day also, Sir Richard Ratcliffe put to death in Pontefract Castle the four prisoners whom Gloucester and Buckingham had confined there in the month of May.

8. Three days after these executions, Gloucester, with the Cardinal-archbishop of Canterbury and several other spiritual and lay lords, proceeded to the sanctuary at Westminster, to demand the person of the Duke of York, whose presence at the approaching coronation was held to be indispensable. Yielding to the persuasions of the primate, or rather to the conviction of the uselessness of all resistance, the queen-mother with a flood of tears delivered up "her beautiful boy," who was carried to the Tower and there secured beside his brother.

As soon as Richard had the two direct heirs to the crown in his power, he conceived the design of dishonouring his brother's memory. Feigning a great respect for purity of manners, he loudly blamed the late king's licentious life, and took no steps to silence the rumours against his mother's character. Edward's children also were alleged to be illegitimate, his marriage with Elizabeth Woodville being declared to have been altogether illegal. Jane Shore, his favourite mistress, was compelled to do open penance by walking through the crowded streets of the city on a Sunday, with no other dress but her kirtle, barefooted, and with a lighted taper in her hand.

This prelude to a deeper plot was followed by a sermon at Paul's Cross, delivered by Dr Shaw on the text, *The multiplying brood of the ungodly shall not thrive, nor take deep rooting from bastard slips*. The preacher indulged in much scandalous invective on the deceased king and his family, and, after coarsely flattering the Duke of Gloucester, shouted out "Long live King Richard!" In two public meetings held the following week in the city, the same treasonable cries were uttered, and a deputation from the citizens, headed by the lord mayor, and accompanied by Buckingham and many lords and gentlemen, waited upon the Protector at Baynard's Castle, and

pressed him to take the crown as his by right of birth, and by lawful election of the three estates of the realm.

Gloucester affected hesitation. "I am not ambitious," he said. The duties of royalty are painful, and have no charms for me. The crown should adorn the brows of my nephew, for whom I entertain the warmest affection." "Not so," replied Buckingham; "the free people of England will never be ruled by a bastard; and if you refuse the crown, they know where to find another who will gladly accept it." The Protector with hypocritical moderation submitted to the pretended popular will, and on the 26th of June 1483 assumed the kingly dignity by the title of Richard III.

Richard III., A. D. 1483—1485.

9. Ten days after his usurpation Richard was solemnly crowned at Westminster with his queen Anne, Warwick's daughter, and shortly after began a royal progress through the kingdom, listening to petitions, and administering justice in person. He was everywhere received with acclamations, and at York the ceremony of the coronation was repeated.

During his absence from London, the young princes were murdered in the Tower by their uncle's order, and their bodies were buried at the foot of the stairs leading to their apartments. Their friends, who were ignorant of their fate, met in different parts of the kingdom, and a plan was laid for liberating them from their imprisonment. Although the news of their death disconcerted the conspirators, they did not abandon their schemes, but resolved to raise up a new competitor to the crown in the person of Henry, earl of Richmond, a man in the vigour of life. He was the grandson of Owen Tudor and Catherine, widow of Henry V., and the representative of the Lancastrian line by right of his mother, Margaret Beaufort, daughter of the Duke of Somerset, and great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt. In the royal families of Spain and Portugal there were nearer heirs in this line to the English crown; but as foreigners their claims were overlooked. It was proposed that Richmond should espouse Elizabeth, the late king's eldest daughter, and now, by the death of her two brothers, the representative of the house of York. The queen-mother warmly entered into this project; and the Duke of Buckingham, on whom the usurper had lavished honours and estates, was among the first to invite the Earl of Richmond into England.

The insurrection broke out on the 18th of October, chiefly in the southern counties; but through Buckingham's incompetency it miserably failed. The duke fell into Richard's hands at Salisbury, where his head was struck off in the market-place. Most of the leaders of the insurgents had escaped into Brittany, so that the usurper found few victims. Among the most conspicuous was St Leger, who had married the Duchess of Exeter, Richard's own sister.

The king now summoned a parliament, which met on the 11th of November, and declared him the lawful sovereign by birth, inheritance, free election, consecration, and coronation, and entailed the crown on his only son Edward, now declared Prince of Wales. The usual bill of attainder was passed against all who should attempt to disturb the lawful government, and many grievances were redressed, in particular the odious exaction of benevolences, which had been introduced in the late arbitrary times. Although the royal family suffered, it cannot be denied that the people were at first benefited by Richard's usurpation.

10. To thwart the schemes of the Yorkists, 500 of whom then in exile had done homage to Henry Tudor as their legitimate sovereign, immediately after he had sworn to make Elizabeth his queen, Richard resolved to get that young lady into his power. The queen-mother, who was still residing with her daughters in the sanctuary at Westminster, was induced to quit her asylum, and go to court. The king's design of marrying Elizabeth to his son, a boy of eleven years, was frustrated by the youth's sudden death at Middleham Castle; and the father now resolved to marry that princess himself, his scheme being remarkably favoured by the sudden illness and death of his own wife Anne. Both mother and daughter rejoiced at this event; both forgot the murder of their relatives, and the crimes by which Richard had attained his wicked elevation. The Princess Elizabeth in particular betrayed a scandalous anxiety to wear a queenly crown. But Richard's advisers decidedly opposed such an unnatural match, representing to him that it would not only be condemned by the clergy, but would deprive him of his stanchest adherents; and the usurper, to screen himself from the popular indignation, was compelled to resign all thoughts of making the heiress of York his wife.

The critical hour now drew nigh, for Richard's yoke began to be burdensome to the people, and the citizens of London

were exasperated by the exaction of forced loans. The king never felt himself secure; he wore a breastplate beneath his robes; his nights were passed without sleep; and he saw an enemy in every stranger. On the 7th of August, Henry Tudor, earl of Richmond, landed at Milford Haven with about 5000 men, of whom scarcely one half were English. Richard moved from Nottingham to meet him, losing partisans at every step of his march, while Henry's forces increased as he advanced. On the 22d, the two armies met in that extensive plain nearly surrounded by hills, which commences about a mile to the south of Bosworth in Leicestershire. The king's troops deserted boldly to the invader, or hung back from the field, and the Duke of Norfolk and his son the Earl of Surrey were almost the only leaders who remained true in this hour of trial. Norfolk began the attack, but none followed him; when Richard, shouting "Treason," galloped into the midst of the enemy. He cut his way to Henry's standard, killed Sir W. Brandon who carried it, cut down Sir John Cheney, and was making a deadly thrust at his rival when he was surrounded, thrown from his horse, and despatched by many wounds. Lord Stanley picked up the battered crown, and placing it on Richmond's head, exclaimed: "Long live King Henry!" In this battle, which terminated the wars of the Roses, 3000 men are said to have perished. Richard's body was stripped, thrown across a horse, and thus carried behind the new king to Leicester, where, after being exposed during two or three days, it was buried in the Grey Friars' Church.

11. PROGRESS OF THE PEOPLE.—A Byzantine historian, in some curious notices of the principal countries of Europe at the beginning of the fifteenth century, thus describes England. "It is full of towns and villages. It has no vines, and but little fruit, but it abounds in corn, honey, and wool, from which the natives make great quantities of cloth. London, the capital, may be preferred to every city of the west for population, opulence, and luxury. It is seated on the river Thames, which, by the advantage of the tide, daily receives and despatches trading-vessels from and to various countries."

The increase and importance of English commerce is remarkably indicated by the rise of mercantile persons to great wealth, rank, and power. The founder of the De la Pole family, successively earls, marquises, and dukes of Suffolk, was a merchant of Hull in the time of Edward III., to whom on one occasion he lent £18,500. He was frequently em-

ployed in embassies, and in other important affairs of state. One of his descendants was the favourite of Queen Margaret of Anjou, and another married Elizabeth, the sister of Edward IV.

Another great merchant was William Cannyng of Bristol, on whose monument, in the beautiful church of St Mary Radcliff, it is stated that Edward IV. on one occasion seized shipping belonging to him to the amount of 2470 tons, including vessels of four, five, and even nine hundred tons burden. He was elected to the mayoralty of his native city no fewer than five times.

In Scotland, as well as in England, manufactures and commerce made considerable advances. One of the most eminent Scottish merchants of this age was William Elphinstone, the founder of the commerce of Glasgow, as his son was of the university of Aberdeen. His trade consisted chiefly in exporting *pickled salmon*. George Faulau and John Dalrymple, two other merchants, were frequently employed by James II. in embassies and other public business along with priests and noblemen. By a law passed in 1458, merchants were forbidden to wear silk, scarlet, or marten's fur, and their wives were to be dressed in a manner correspondent to their estate.

Of the trade of Ireland during this period very little is known: the exports were chiefly hides, skins, and fish; some gold ore was discovered; but the country was celebrated even then for its abundant fertility and its excellent harbours.

EXERCISES.

1. Mention the chief circumstances of the battle of Towton. What were the proceedings of the parliament after the victory? Who kept up the contest on the Lancastrian side? What was the fate of Sir Ralph Gray?
2. What is the history of Edward's marriage? What was the conduct of the queen? Describe the political effects produced by it.
3. What occurred at Edgecote? Describe the condition of the king. What attempts were made against him? What occurred at Erpingham?
4. Under what peculiar circumstances did Warwick and Margaret of Anjou meet? What arrangement did they make? How did they begin to act on it? Describe the restoration of Henry.
5. How did Edward and the Yorkists act? Where and when was a great battle fought between the parties? Give an idea of the slaughter that occurred. What was the fate of the young Prince of Wales?
6. What warlike operations did Edward proceed with? Mention the principal terms of the treaty of Pecquigny. What were the accusations against Clarence? What is supposed to have been his fate? How did the King of France keep the treaty of Pecquigny?
7. When did Edward V. succeed? Whom did Lord Rivers patronize? Who imprisoned the young king? What was the conduct of the queen-mother? Who got himself named Protector? Describe the conduct of the Protector, and the occurrences in Crosby Hall.

8. What was done at the sanctuary at Westminster? Describe the farther proceedings of Gloucester. How did his partisans act upon the people? What was his conduct when he was at last offered the crown?

9. What tragedy occurred in the Tower? Who was the Earl of Richmond? What was the fate of Buckingham? What was done by the parliament?

10. Whom did Richard wish to marry? What was the state of his mind? When and where did Henry Tudor land? Describe the chief events of the battle of Bosworth, and its result.

11. How did a foreigner describe England? How is the rise of commerce indicated? Give instances of merchants who achieved great eminence. Give an account of the trade of Scotland and Ireland.

CHAPTER XVII.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE TUDOR DYNASTY TO THE DEATH OF HENRY VIII., A. D. 1485—1547.

HOUSE OF TUDOR—FIVE SOVEREIGNS.

Henry VII.—Irish Rebellion—Lambert Simnel—Perkin Warbeck—Execution of Lord Stanley—Warbeck in Scotland—His Landing in Cornwall—Earl of Warwick beheaded—Marriage of Prince Arthur—Henry's matrimonial Projects—Policy of his Government—Voyages of Discovery—Extortions of Dudley and Empson—Henry VIII.—War with France—Battle of the Spurs—Flodden—Cardinal Wolsey—Field of the Cloth of Gold—Henry named Defender of the Faith—War with France—Oppressive Taxation—The King's matrimonial Scruples—Fall of Wolsey—Cranmer and Cromwell—Severance from Rome—Divorce and Marriage with Anne Boleyn—The Holy Maid of Kent—Papal Bull—Execution of Anne Boleyn—Henry marries Jane Seymour—Religious Changes—Translation of the Bible—Aske's Rebellion—Confiscation of Church Property—The Pole Family—The Bloody Statute—Anne of Cleves—Fate of Catherine Howard—Wales united to England—Irish Insurrection—Catherine Parr—Capture of Boulogne—Henry's Financial Schemes—Execution of the Earl of Surrey.

1. *Henry VII.*, A. D. 1485—1509.

1. HENRY TUDOR made his victorious entry into London on the 28th of August 1485, and proceeded straight to St Paul's, where he devoutly offered his three standards on the high altar, and a *Te Deum* was sung. The prevalence of a fatal epidemic, known as the "sweating sickness," retarded his coronation until October, when he was solemnly crowned by the Archbishop of Canterbury. The parliament met in November, when

he declared that he had come to the throne by right of inheritance, and by the "sure judgment of God who had given him the victory." The latter expression caused a few murmurs ; but after the proscriptions of the preceding reigns had been repealed, the succession to the crown was regularly settled. So far all was prudent and moderate ; but the deficiency in his treasury constrained the king to imitate the harsh measures by which he and his friends had suffered. Numerous estates belonging to the Yorkists were confiscated, many of the crown donations were revoked, and even his own friends began to take the alarm. To quiet both parties he fulfilled his promise to marry Elizabeth of York, thus effectually blending the interests of the White and Red Roses. His power was secured by the birth of a son in September 1486, who received the name of Arthur, in memory of the celebrated prince of that name, from whom the Tudors pretended to trace their descent.

LAMBERT SIMNEL.—The discontent of the people, excited by the proscription of many estimable noblemen, was augmented by the report that the queen was neglected by her husband. She had not accompanied him during a progress he made through the midland counties, and was suspected to have no share in his affections. Murmurs also were heard against Henry's cruelty to the Earl of Warwick, the son of Clarence, who was kept in close confinement in the Tower. Just at this crisis one Richard Simon, an Oxford priest, appeared in Ireland, and demanded an interview with the Lord-deputy Fitzgerald, earl of Kildare, to whom he presented Edward Plantagenet, earl of Warwick, recently escaped from the Tower. During the reign of Henry VI., Clarence had long been viceroy of Ireland, and the English settlers were strongly attached to him. Kildare was one of his most devoted partisans, and the Yorkist faction looked upon him as their chief. Fitzgerald, believing the story of the two adventurers, presented the boy to the Irish nobility and to the citizens of Dublin, who immediately recognised him as their king with the title of Edward VI. As soon as Henry received intelligence of these strange proceedings, the real Warwick was brought from the Tower, and after being paraded through the streets of London, that all might see him, was taken to Shene Palace, where any person was allowed to approach and converse with him. But if the English were thus convinced of the imposture of Simon and his pupil, the Irish would not be

disabused, and on the contrary regarded the prince at Shene as the false Plantagenet.

2. Although the Earl of Warwick had been recognised by Richard III. as his heir presumptive, that youthful prince had, through the jealous fears of his royal uncle, been kept prisoner at Sheriff Hutton in Yorkshire, and the succession to the crown transferred to John de la Pole, earl of Lincoln, son of Richard's sister and the Duke of Suffolk. Towards him King Henry had never shown any distrust, and had even made him one of his privy councillors. But when on a visit to the court of Margaret of York, dowager-duchess of Burgundy, Lincoln resolved to embrace Warwick's party. The duchess entered into his views, and confided to him a body of 2000 German veterans, with whom he sailed to Ireland, and landed at Dublin. The earl did not raise any doubts regarding Warwick's identity, and advised that his coronation should take place without delay. This ceremony was performed by the Bishop of Meath, who placed on the impostor's head a crown of diamonds belonging to a statue of the Virgin Mary. Almost
 24th May }
 1487. } immediately after, Lincoln disembarked in Lancashire and marched towards York. Although the Irish fable was generally discredited, the forces of the false Warwick soon amounted to nearly 10,000 men. At Stoke, near Newark in Nottinghamshire, they were met by the royal army; the victory was severely contested, but eventually Henry triumphed. Four thousand men were left on the field; Lincoln and Fitzgerald were slain, and the priest with his pupil were made prisoners. The imposture was confessed; the priest was sent to prison, where he died, and Edward Plantagenet, or Lambert Simnel, for that was his real name, was employed as a turnspit in the king's kitchen. More than 5000 persons were attainted for their real or pretended share in this insurrection, and their confiscated property satisfied alike the king's vengeance and his cupidity. Finding, however, that his behaviour towards the queen rendered him unpopular, he consented to her coronation on the 20th of November 1487, and assigned to her an income suitable to her exalted station.

Being now freed from domestic enemies, and secure of his northern frontier by a new treaty with Scotland, Henry turned his eyes to the continent, where Francis II., duke of Brittany, was at war with Charles VIII. of France. Both parties applied to England for succour, and as a French war

was still as popular as ever, the Commons voted large supplies; but the people of York and Durham refused to pay their contingent, and when the Earl of Northumberland would have enforced the king's orders, the people flew to arms, attacked his house, and put him to death. The Earl of Surrey was commissioned to put down the insurrection, in which he easily succeeded; one of the leaders, John à Chambre, being taken and put to death, while the other, Sir John Egremont, fled to the court of the Duchess of Burgundy.

After many delays and the voting of fresh supplies, which seem to have been Henry's sole aim, the king crossed the straits in the autumn of 1492, and laid siege to Boulogne, at a period when all cause of hostility had been removed. In less than a month the troops were withdrawn, and a treaty concluded with the French king.

3. PERKIN WARBECK.—There was at that time a rumour generally believed in England, that Richard Plantagenet, Duke of York, the second son of Edward IV., had escaped from the Tower, where his unfortunate brother had perished by the orders of Richard III. In 1491, a young man, nineteen years of age, of interesting appearance and noble manners, landed in the Cove of Cork. He took the name of Richard IV., and as such was warmly received by the citizens of Cork, and many of the English settlers in Ireland, who were old Yorkists, acknowledged him as their sovereign. Here he was induced to accept a pressing invitation from the French king, who gave him a courteous reception, and appointed a body-guard to wait upon him. A number of English exiles went to Paris and bound themselves to his service. On the conclusion of hostilities with England, Charles ordered the young man to quit his territories, and he accordingly withdrew to the court of the Duchess of Burgundy. This princess, who hated King Henry and all his race with a most enduring and implacable hatred, after some little hesitation, embraced her guest as her dear nephew, and gave him the poetical title of "the White Rose of England." This was soon known at Henry's court, and while the Yorkist emissaries felt no doubt as to his birth and rights, those of the king stated, that he was one Perkin Warbeck, the son of a converted Jew, a wealthy merchant of Tournay.

Upon this Henry prepared for a war, not of arms but of policy. He bribed Sir Robert Clifford to betray the names of the English gentry who had entered into Warbeck's

schemes, and a number of them were arrested and brought to London. Sir Simon Mountford, Robert Ratcliffe, and William Daubeney, were immediately executed; the rest were pardoned. Not long after this, Sir William Stanley, brother to that Lord Stanley who had placed the crown on Richmond's head after the battle of Bosworth, and who had himself saved the king's life when it was endangered by Richard's furious charge, was put to death as a traitor. There may have been political reasons for his execution; but it was alleged that the king had cast a covetous eye upon his immense wealth.

In July 1496, Warbeck resolved to invade England, and while the king was on a visit to his mother in Lancashire, a few hundred desperate men were landed at Deal. They were quickly driven back to the seashore; one hundred and sixty-nine were taken prisoners; the rest with Perkin returned to Flanders. All the captives were executed, and their bodies gibbeted along the eastern and southern coasts.

4. From Flanders Warbeck now proceeded to Ireland, where he was coldly received; thence he crossed over to Scotland, where he was joyfully welcomed by the court. James IV. always addressed him as his cousin, and married him to Lady Catherine Gordon, the Earl of Huntly's beautiful daughter, who was nearly related on the mother's side to the royal house of Stewart. Whether the Scottish monarch believed Perkin to be of royal blood or knew him to be an impostor, must ever remain a matter of conjecture; but it is certain that he and his people had long distrusted Henry, and were eager for a cause of quarrel with him. An insurrection arose in England from the aid given by the King of Scots to Perkin Warbeck. The men of Cornwall, holding that they were overtaxed to meet the invaders, rose in insurrection and marched to Devonshire, to the number of 16,000. Thence they proceeded through Wiltshire, Hampshire, and Surrey, into Kent, and encamped at Blackheath. Though without cavalry, artillery, or trained officers, the insurgents fought bravely against the king's forces, until 2000 of them were slain, and 1500 were taken prisoners. Of the latter, June 1497. Lord Audley was beheaded on Tower Hill; and Flam-
mock an attorney, with Joseph a blacksmith, were hanged, drawn, and quartered at Tyburn. The rest were all pardoned.

After another incursion across the borders, which was retaliated by the English army under the Earl of Surrey, James listened to Henry's terms of peace, and consented to dismiss

Perkin. The adventurer once more endeavoured to raise the Irish, but failing in this he steered for Cornwall, and landed in Whitsand Bay with a small body of followers. Here he soon found himself at the head of a host eager to revenge the loss of their friends and relations at Blackheath; and assuming the title of Richard IV., he appeared before Exeter with an irregular force of about 10,000 men. The failure of their attack upon this city so disheartened many of the rebels that they began to return home; while the remainder marched towards Taunton. Here their progress was stopped by the royal army. Perkin lost heart, and fled during the night: in the morning, the rebels submitted to the king's mercy. The ringleaders were hanged, and the rest contemptuously dismissed. Immediate pursuit was made after the fugitive, who had succeeded in reaching the sanctuary of Beaulieu in the New Forest. Finding himself without help or hope, he surrendered to the king, and after being paraded through the streets of London, was permitted to live at court in apparent liberty, although in reality he was strictly watched. Six or seven months afterwards he contrived to escape, but was brought back, and after being set in the stocks at Westminster and Cheapside, was sent to the Tower. In the
 1494. } succeeding year an attempt was made to restore him to liberty; but its failure cost him his life. He was arraigned
 22d Nov. } for treason, convicted and executed at Tyburn; and
 1494. } on the following day the Earl of Warwick was beheaded on Tower Hill for his alleged participation in Perkin's schemes. Warwick was in his 29th year when he died, but had been a state prisoner from his childhood. The people long believed Warbeck to have been really the Duke of York, and in this they were confirmed by the contradictions and reservations in the adventurer's dying confession. In 1674, as some workmen were making repairs in the Tower, they found the skeletons of two children buried at the foot of the stairs leading from the king's apartments to the chapel. They are supposed to have been the remains of Edward V. and his brother. If this be correct Perkin Warbeck was an impostor; but his whole history is interwoven with doubts, and the weight of evidence is by some thought to incline to the other side. The innocent Warwick was sacrificed under the pretence that his life was an obstacle to the marriage of the Prince of Wales with the Princess Catherine of Aragon, whose hand was said to have been refused by her father so

long as there existed such a near heir to the crown of England.

5. Being now freed from every rival to his throne, Henry sought to strengthen his position by great alliances. In 1501, Prince Arthur was married to Catherine of Aragon, but did not survive his union more than six months. Ferdinand, the father of the young widow, immediately proposed that she should be united to her brother-in-law, Henry, now heir-apparent to the English throne. The obstacles of the canons of the Romish church were overcome; and in 1503, the young prince was contracted to Catherine, but the marriage was delayed on various pretences for nearly six years.

Queen Elizabeth of York having died not long after her son Arthur, Henry began to look through Europe for another wife. He first cast his eyes on the widow of the late King of Naples, whose husband had bequeathed her immense wealth; but on finding that the new king would not give up the treasures, he sought another widow, Margaret of Savoy, whose possessions were at her own disposal. An extraordinary incident favoured his views. In January 1506, the Archduke Philip and his wife Joanna, now queen of Castile by her mother's death, on their way from Flanders to Spain, were driven into Weymouth harbour. Henry invited them to his court, where he entertained them magnificently, but would not allow the archduke, who was Margaret's brother, to depart, until he had agreed to the marriage, and fixed her portion at 300,000 crowns. A treaty of commerce was also concluded wholly in favour of the English; and Edmund de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, one of the nephews of the Duchess of Burgundy, and at that time in the Low Countries, was surrendered to Henry's vengeance.

Before the negotiations could be finished for the marriage of Margaret of Savoy, Philip died in Spain, leaving a widow whose alliance seemed much more desirable to the English king. It was, however, rumoured that she was insane; but this did not change Henry's cupidity: he neglected Margaret, and proposed for Joanna. Her father promised him her hand as soon as she should recover her reason; but that time never arrived, and Henry, disappointed in all his matrimonial speculations, was obliged to have recourse to other modes of gratifying his avaricious propensities.

The king's health had long been declining, and his sufferings made him think seriously of the world to come. In the

spring of 1507, he distributed alms among the poor, and discharged all prisoners in London confined for debts under forty shillings. In the beginning of 1509, he made his will, in which he enjoined his successor to repair the injuries he had himself committed, and make restitution to the victims he had plundered. He died at his new palace of Richmond on the 21st of April in the same year, and was buried in the magnificent chapel of Westminster Abbey, which bears his name. He had reached the fifty-third year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign.

6. NAVIGATION AND COMMERCE.—Although Henry VII. was an able soldier, yet, either from natural disposition or from policy, his measures were in general pacific, and he lived on friendly terms with the neighbouring princes. Under his government, law and justice again made their appearance, after an absence of thirty years during the civil wars. He protected and encouraged commerce, manufactures, and navigation, which had languished during the same period, and from the effect of a long series of hostilities with France. Imitating the example of Edward III., he invited over Flemish workmen, who taught the people to spin wool; and by a special treaty he secured to his subjects the exclusive commerce of Iceland, and opened to them that of the Baltic on condition that they should pay certain tolls to the King of Denmark on passing through the Sound. He also desired to have his name connected with the great maritime movement that had been begun by Portugal; and in 1498, excited by the news brought home by Columbus, whose brother had visited the English court, he sent out Sebastian Cabot from Bristol to seek for new countries beyond the western main. The discoverer touched at the island of Newfoundland, and coasted along the shores of Florida; thus to England belongs the honour of first exploring the mainland of America. Although these voyages were not at that time followed by any settlement in the New World, they began to inspire the nation with a taste for foreign adventure; and Henry VII. may fairly claim the glory of having founded the English marine.

But a mean vice tarnished all his good qualities. Avarice, which was his ruling passion, made him the tyrant of his subjects. Extortion, carried on under a thousand various pretences by his two ministers, Dudley and Empson, accumulated immense treasures in his coffers, and enabled him to reign without the assistance or control of parliament; and if,

from time to time, he called the two houses together, it was only when some specious pretext for demanding money presented an irresistible charm to his avarice. He had, besides, nothing to fear from the spirit of these legislative bodies; the zeal of the older parliaments in defence of their liberties had died away during the wars of the Roses; and neither the Lords nor the Commons ever dared raise their voices to complain of the king's extortions. It was with their consent that he revived those arbitrary taxes known by the ironical title of *benevolences*; impositions so odious, that even Richard III. had voluntarily renounced them, but which under his insatiable successor became a fertile source of wealth and power. At his death, eighteen hundred thousand pounds sterling were found in his coffers, a sum enormous even for a king to possess in that age. It was soon squandered by his prodigal successor.

Henry VIII., A. D. 1509—1547.

7. England beheld with joy the accession of a prince in his eighteenth year, and whose disposition was so different from that of his severe and grasping predecessor. The first measures of the new king seemed to justify the favourable anticipations of the people. The general pardon granted by his father was confirmed by proclamation; while Dudley and Empson, who had so zealously pandered to the rapacity of their royal master, were sacrificed to the popular clamour. Henry's magnificence was displayed in pompous shows and festivities; and he was fond of literature and the arts, which he had successfully cultivated. Everything seemed to forebode a mild and peaceful reign.

WAR WITH FRANCE.—Had Henry VIII. adopted the prudent and pacific measures of his father, he might have been the most powerful sovereign of his times—the arbiter and peacemaker of Europe. But he was anxious for military glory, and easily persuaded by Ferdinand of Aragon and Pope Julius II. to take part in a continental war. In 1512, the king summoned his first parliament, which voted supplies with the greatest readiness, and the people once more began to dream of the glories of Crecy and Agincourt. But the fine army that had been raised was wasted in a fruitless expedition to the Pyrenees to aid Ferdinand in his designs upon Navarre. In the following year, fresh supplies enabled Henry to equip a new army, and he sailed to Calais, Lord

Herbert having already begun the campaign with the siege of Terouenne. Before this city the English monarch was joined by the Emperor Maximilian, and after a blockade of two months the garrison capitulated. In one of their attempts to succour the besieged, the French cavalry fled so fast from the field that the affair was popularly known as the "Battle of the Spurs." The walls of Terouenne were levelled with the ground, the ditches filled up, the houses burnt, and scarcely one stone was left upon another. Henry next laid siege to Tournay, which he entered in triumph on the 22d September, and soon afterwards returned to England. While the king had been thus engaged in France, the Earl of Surrey had routed the Scottish chivalry on the fatal field of Flodden (August 22, 1513).

8. WOLSEY.—At this time and for many years after, England was governed by Cardinal Wolsey. His father, who was a substantial burgess of Ipswich, had brought him up for the church, and so apt was he in learning from his earliest youth, that at Oxford he was honoured with the title of the Boy Bachelor. His first clerical appointment was to the living of Limington in Somersetshire, through the patronage of the Marquis of Dorset, whose sons had been among his pupils at the university. He next became private chaplain to the treasurer of Calais, where he was noticed by that able diplomatist, Bishop Fox, and by him recommended to Henry VII., who was so pleased with his learning, activity, and aptitude for the despatch of public business, that in a short time he preferred him to the deanery of Lincoln and the office of king's almoner.

Henry VIII., who had little inclination to business, found in Wolsey the very man whom he wanted to relieve him of all the cares of state. Although twenty years his senior, he soon became his royal master's bosom friend; and on the resignation of Archbishop Warham, he received the seals as chancellor, being soon after further promoted by Leo X. to the important post of papal legate. He now became most sumptuous in his style of living. His train consisted of eight hundred persons; his domestics were richly attired, and even his cook wore a satin or velvet jerkin, with a chain of gold round his neck. This splendour charmed the king, who considered it but the reflection of his own; and the people were delighted at the elevation of one from their own ranks. Nor was he altogether undeserving of his good fortune, for he dis-

pensed his charities with a liberal hand, encouraged men of learning, endowed colleges, improved the police of the country, and enforced the due administration of justice.

Francis I. had now ascended the throne of France, and excited Henry's jealousy by the military glory he had acquired in Italy. Wolsey encouraged this feeling in his master towards Francis, against whom the favourite bore an ancient grudge; but the French king found means of effecting a reconciliation with the minister whom he had once offended, and a treaty of alliance was entered into between France and England in 1518. Henry was ever in extremes, and he now professed the greatest admiration of his rival. This, however, was somewhat shaken by the death of Maximilian, and their competing claims for the imperial diadem; but when the electors had made choice of the Archduke Charles, at that time King of Spain, his esteem revived, and the two monarchs met in 1520, near Guisnes, at the celebrated "Field of the Cloth of Gold." Here a fortnight was passed in the most gorgeous pageantry, in tilting, and in feasting. The most lasting effect of this interview was the ruin of many of the nobility, both English and French, who, in their foolish rivalry, contracted enormous debts. Turning aside to Grave-lines, Henry visited the Emperor Charles, who flattered the vanity of his "dear uncle" by appointing him umpire in every difference that might arise between himself and Francis.

9. Henry's return from the continent was marked by the judicial murder of Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, on a groundless charge of imagining the king's death; but in reality for his connexion with the ancient line of the Plantagenets, and his great wealth. His hospitality had rendered him a favourite with the nation at large, and when he was
 17th May }
 1521. } beheaded, the people groaned and lamented as for the death of a private friend.

This year was also signalized by the king's defence of the Romish church against Luther, whose doctrines had been eagerly received by many in England. On the 14th May, Wolsey ordered all heretical books to be seized, and on the 20th, Henry wrote with his own hand to Louis of Bavaria, denouncing "the fire kindled by Luther, and fanned by the arts of the devil," and calling upon that prince to burn both the reformer and his writings. He followed this up by his celebrated Defence of the Seven Sacraments, for which Leo X. rewarded him with the title of "Defender of the Faith,"

whilst he published an indulgence to all who should read the king's book.

Francis and Charles V. were now at war, when the former applied for Henry's friendly mediation. Wolsey was immediately despatched to the continent, not to arbitrate between the contending princes, but to concert with the emperor for the dismemberment of the French monarchy. The result of the cardinal's negotiation was a league signed at Calais in October by the pope, Charles V., and Henry VIII., to check the wicked ambition of France by attacking it in several quarters at once. The course of hostilities, which had not been discontinued, was most disastrous to Francis; his troops were driven out of Milan, the imperialists had taken Tournay, while he could boast of nothing more than the capture of Hesdin and Fontarabia. At this time Leo X. died, and Wolsey aspired to the popedom; but after deliberating twenty-three days, the conclave elected Adrian, cardinal of Tortosa, a Fleming by birth, who had been the emperor's tutor, and was now his confidential minister and viceroy of Spain.

10. Francis having vainly endeavoured to change the policy of the English court, suddenly declared war; and Charles, taking advantage of the anger felt by Henry at this hasty step, visited England in May 1522, where he spent six weeks amidst costly pageants and other entertainments. Business, however, was not neglected, and plans were arranged for invading France on different quarters, the money necessary for the expedition being raised by a forced loan on the citizens of London. Surrey was appointed lord high admiral, and with his fleet he did some damage on the coast of Brittany; but on land his army was wasted by marching and counter-marching between Calais and the banks of the Somme.

Francis attempted a diversion both in Ireland and Scotland. In the former country he opened a correspondence with the powerful house of Desmond, who were still partly independent of the English, and induced the earl to take up arms, under promise of an annual pension and a French auxiliary force. According to the treaty then signed, Ireland was to be divided between the Desmonds and Richard de la Pole, brother to the unfortunate duke who was beheaded in the Tower in 1513, and male representative of the house of York.

The exhausted state of Henry's exchequer rendered it imperative for him to assemble a parliament, which met, after an interval of eight years, on the 15th April 1523, Sir Thomas

More being chosen by the Commons as their Speaker. Cardinal Wolsey went down to the lower house in great state, and demanded an immediate vote of £800,000 by means of a property-tax at the rate of twenty per cent.; but the Commons would not agree to more than ten per cent. The clergy also rejected Wolsey's demand of twenty-five per cent., and he could only obtain from them a grant of ten per cent. payable in five years. This enormous tax created the greatest discontent: the citizens of London were almost in rebellion, and many of the counties resisted payment of the odious impost.

The supplies thus procured were wasted in idle hostilities in France, during which the Duke of Suffolk advanced to within twenty miles of Paris. But the death of Adrian and the election of Giulio de' Medici (Clement VII.) to the papedom, by again disappointing Wolsey's towering ambition, caused a change in the policy of England. Imagining that the emperor had not fairly supported his claims—a supposition not confirmed by documents recently brought to light—the cardinal thought seriously of a reconciliation with Francis; but the defeat and capture of that monarch at the disastrous battle of Pavia, led to another change in Henry's conduct. The war
 24th Feb. }
 1524 } was to be carried on with renewed vigour, and Wolsey sought to raise money, first by an arbitrary commission, and then by way of benevolence. Both methods failed; for the people made a most determined resistance, and Henry recalled his despotic orders. This period marks the highest point of the soaring cardinal's flight: his fall was now near at hand.

11. ANNE BOLEYN.—In 1527, a year ever memorable in the annals of modern Rome, from its capture and pillage by the ferocious troops of the Constable Bourbon, Henry VIII. seems first to have been attracted by the charms of Anne Boleyn, daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn or Bullen, Viscount Rochford, and then maid of honour to Queen Catherine. She was in her twentieth year, and the most beautiful, graceful, and accomplished of all the young ladies about the court. But to Henry's dishonourable proposals, she would give no ear, and the king for the first time in his life experienced opposition to his sovereign will.

Henry now began to be scrupulous as to his marriage with Catherine, his brother's widow; but besides this, it was a general subject of regret that there was no male heir to the

crown, and there was a secret dislike against Catherine, who was a most devout Roman Catholic, while Anne inclined to the reformed doctrines. Wolsey favoured a divorce in order to gratify his resentment against the emperor, and would have strengthened the recent alliance with France by promoting his master's marriage with the daughter of Louis XII. Indeed the idea of the divorce is said to have been first suggested by Wolsey, who never imagined that Henry would make Anne Boleyn his wife,—marriages between sovereigns and their subjects being now generally avoided. Others assert that the matter originated in a doubt expressed by the Bishop of Tarbes as to Mary's legitimacy, at the time he was in England negotiating a union between that princess and Francis I. or his son the Duke of Orleans. That he might prove the unlawfulness of his marriage with Catherine, the king himself took up the pen, seeking for arguments in *Leviticus* and in his favourite *Thomas Aquinas*.

FALL OF WOLSEY.—When Wolsey was first informed by Henry of his design to marry Anne, he used every means to divert his master from his purpose; but failing in this, he adroitly fell in with the king's humour, and engaged to serve him to the utmost of his power. The bishops and divines whom he consulted urged him to refer the question to the pope, which was accordingly done; but Clement, through fear of the emperor on the one hand, and of France and England on the other, did every thing in his power to lengthen and embarrass the proceedings. Campeggio was sent to England to co-operate with the English cardinal; but still delay followed delay, while Henry's impatience hourly grew stronger. On the 21st of June 1529, the two cardinal legates held a solemn court in the great hall of the Black Friars, before which Henry and Catherine were summoned to appear. The queen withdrew, after protesting against the jurisdiction of the tribunal; but the court, hesitating to deliver judgment, adjourned, and the legatine commission was shortly after cancelled. This procrastination, from which it was impossible to absolve Wolsey, proved fatal to him, and his fall was as rapid as his bitterest enemies could desire. He was accused of transgressing the law of the land in his capacity of papal legate; his property was seized; all his friends, except a faithful few, deserted him; and he died of a broken heart on the 29th of November 1530, in the sixtieth year of his age. Shortly before his death he exclaimed, "Had I but served

God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

The vices of this great minister, his pride, avarice, and tyranny, were conspicuous in his whole career. But he was not without his good qualities, and they have been beautifully told by Shakspeare, who makes one of his attached followers speak thus of him to Queen Catherine:—

He was a scholar, and a ripe and good one;
Exceeding wise, fair spoken, and persuading:
Lofty, and sour, to them that loved him not;
But, to those men that sought him, sweet as summer.
And though he were unsatisfied in getting,
(Which was a sin,) yet in bestowing, madam,
He was most princely. Ever witness for him
Those twins of learning, that he raised in you,
Ipswich, and Oxford! one of which fell with him,
Unwilling to-outlive the good that did it;
The other, though unfinished, yet so famous,
So excellent in art, and still so rising,
That Christendom shall ever speak his virtue.
His overthrow heaped happiness upon him;
For then, and not till then, he felt himself;
And found the blessedness of being little:
And, to add greater honours to his age
Than man could give him, he died fearing God.

He had the fortunate talent of confining the king's violent passions within reasonable bounds, at least in the public eye: as soon as he was dead, Henry's character showed itself in all its perversity.

12. SEVERANCE FROM ROME.—Nearly a year before the cardinal's death, the Duke of Norfolk, Anne's uncle, became president of the council; Sir Thomas More was appointed chancellor; Dr Gardiner, secretary; the Duke of Suffolk, lord-marshal; and Viscount Rochford was raised to the earldom of Wiltshire. Cranmer, then private tutor in a gentleman's family, first suggested that the proper way to settle the tedious question of the divorce would be to have it discussed by learned men upon the sole authority of the Word of God, without any further reference to the pope. He was immediately summoned to London, ordered to draw up his opinion in writing, made king's chaplain, and sent to reside in the house of Anne Boleyn's father.

Cranmer's argument was very simple: he maintained that the laws of God, laid down in the Bible and confirmed by the fathers, did not permit a man to marry his brother's widow. This decided the king; but he still desired to consult the

great universities of England and of the continent. The former were threatened until they agreed with his views, the others were bribed; but the two great reformers of Germany condemned the project of a divorce for the purpose of marrying another woman.

If the king still entertained any doubts, they were removed by Thomas Cromwell, Wolsey's solicitor. This remarkable man was the son of a tradesman in the neighbourhood of the metropolis. After receiving a tolerable education, he had gone to Antwerp and served as a clerk in the English factory there: he was in Bourbon's army at the sack of Rome; and was afterwards employed in a merchant's counting-house at Venice. Returning home he studied the law, and was patronized by Wolsey, to whom he proved a faithful adherent. In the House of Commons he defended his fallen protector; and when weaker minds were hesitating, he boldly proposed to the king to deny the pope's supremacy, and imitate the German princes by declaring himself the head of his own church. The advice was eagerly taken; Cromwell was made a privy councillor; and the clergy were soon terrified into a formal acknowledgment of Henry's ecclesiastical supremacy, 1530.

It was not however until two years later, that the king
 January } sealed his final separation from the pope, and the il-
 1533. } legality of his former marriage, by being privately
 wedded to Anne Boleyn. Parliament now prohibited all
 appeals to the pope, and declared that Catherine should no
 longer receive the title of queen, but be styled merely Prin-
 cess-dowager of Wales. On the 28th of May, Henry's mar-
 riage was made public, and four days after Anne was crowned
 at Westminster by Archbishop Cranmer. As soon as this
 was known at Rome, the pope published a bull of excommu-
 nication against Henry and Anne, and in return, the king
 appealed to a general council. In 1534, parliament snapped
 every tie that united England to Rome, by prohibiting all
 payments and appeals to the pope, by confirming Henry's
 title of supreme head of the English Church, and by vesting
 in him alone the right of nominating to the vacant sees, and of
 deciding in all ecclesiastical causes. It was further enacted,
 that Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn was perfectly law-
 ful, that the Princess Mary was illegitimate, and that the
 succession was vested in the children of Queen Anne. Any
 thing written, printed, or spoken against these second nup-

tials was declared high-treason. While these proceedings were going on in England, the pope in full consistory declared Catherine's marriage valid and indissoluble. This much injured queen died in 1536.

The same year that witnessed Catherine's death was fatal to her rival. On returning from a gay tournament in Greenwich Park, Anne Boleyn was arrested, taken to the Tower on a charge of high-treason, and shut up in the very chamber in which she had slept the night before her coronation. Her trial was rapidly hurried on; the commission of lords found her guilty, and on the 19th of May she was beheaded on the Tower Green. Her alleged paramours, Norris, groom of the stole; Weston and Brereton, gentlemen of the king's bed-chamber; Mark Smeaton, a musician; and her own brother, Lord Rochford, perished either by the gibbet or the block; and Elizabeth, her only surviving child, was declared illegitimate by parliament. On the morning after the queen's execution Henry married Jane Seymour, one of her maids of honour.

13. HENRY'S RELIGIOUS CHANGES.—The papal supremacy over England had now been overthrown, but not without opposition and bloodshed. A young woman, named Elizabeth Barton, subject to hysterical or epileptic fits, was in the habit of uttering incoherent sentences during these attacks, and her words were eagerly caught up, and treated as prophecies. The predictions of the Holy Maid of Kent, as she was called, at length attracted so much attention, that Henry desired to see her. She had foretold Wolsey's fall, and he had fallen. But she went too far when she ventured to prophesy, that if the king repudiated Catherine he should die an infamous death within seven months, and be succeeded by the Princess Mary. This led to the arrest of herself and a number of those who had encouraged her imposture. In the star-chamber they confessed their guilt; after which, parliament passed a bill of attainder against them, and the prophetess with six of her accomplices was hanged at Tyburn (21st April 1534). Other and nobler victims, the aged Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and Sir Thomas More, afterwards suffered for the crime of holding correspondence with the Holy Maid, and for refusing to take the oath acknowledging the king's supremacy A.D. 1534. in the church. The monks who scrupled to take the same oath, or to proclaim that the pope was Antichrist, were summarily treated, being condemned for high-treason

and hanged; while the Lutherans and other protestants were burned. These proceedings showed that Henry was determined ^{20th Aug. 1534.} } to abjure the papacy; and Paul III., desirous probably of bringing matters to a crisis, drew up a bull, commanding the king to repent and appear at Rome, in person or by proxy, within ninety days, and declaring him excommunicate in case of default, and pronouncing the forfeiture of his crown. All priests and monks were enjoined to quit the kingdom, subjects were absolved from their allegiance, all Henry's treaties and alliances were annulled, and all Christian states were exhorted to make war upon him until he should return as a penitent to the fold of the church. The bull was not immediately published, but its contents becoming known, both court and country were seriously exasperated.

To enable Henry to manage the affairs of the church, Cromwell, although a layman, was appointed royal vicegerent, vicar-general, and chief commissary, with all the spiritual authority belonging to the king. To replenish the treasury he proposed the abolition of certain religious houses, and a general visitation was appointed for the advancement of religion and the reformation of discipline. On the report of the commissioners an act was passed suppressing 376 monasteries, and the king was enriched by lands computed to be worth £32,000 per annum, besides other spoils estimated at ^{A.D. 1534.} } £100,000—a sum which was much below their real value. By a subsequent act (1539) all the existing monasteries in England were dissolved; and the possessions of 644 convents, 90 colleges, 2374 chantries and free chapels, and 110 hospitals, were annexed to the crown. The rents of these houses actually paid amounted to £130,000, but their real value was at least ten times as much.

14. The results of the king's innovations in ecclesiastical matters were the reduction of the number of sacraments from seven to three—baptism, the Lord's supper, and penance; forbidding the adoration of images; the abrogation of a number of saints' days, especially such as happened in harvest time; and the declaration of the Scriptures with the three creeds as the sole standards of faith. Henry further insisted on the necessity of auricular confession, and denounced all doubts regarding the real presence in the eucharist as a damnable heresy. "This hotch-potch," as Latimer called it, failed to satisfy any part of the nation, but it was still looked upon as a step in the right direction.

In the year 1536 the convocation petitioned Henry to give orders for the preparation of an English translation of the Bible. For some time the king hesitated, but at length assented to what may almost be called the fundamental principle of Protestantism. In the preceding year Coverdale's version had been printed at Zurich, and Cromwell, as vicar-general, ordered that, while the new translation was in hand, this book should be procured by every parish, and chained to a pillar or desk in the choir of the church, for all to read at their pleasure. The new Bible, known as Cranmer's or the Great Bible, appeared in April 1539. The people, long thirsting for the waters of life, rushed to them and drank freely. All who had the means purchased the volume: neighbours would contribute according to their ability to buy one in common; and on Sunday a man might be seen at the lower end of the church reading it aloud to an assemblage of eager listeners.

In the districts around London the religious innovations were received with little resistance, but in proportion to the distance from the capital the opposition to the changes became greater. In Lincolnshire the common people took up arms to the number of 20,000 men, forcing the gentry to become their leaders, and swear to their articles. The Duke of Suffolk was sent against them, but he found the insurrection so formidable, that he was glad to negotiate. Dissensions soon appeared among the insurgents, and they retired to their
 A.D. } houses after fifteen victims had been yielded up to the
 1536 } royal vengeance.

PILGRIMAGE OF GRACE.—Another fierce rebellion broke out on the north of the Trent, which rapidly spread from Yorkshire into Durham, Northumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The rebels, under the command of a gentleman named Robert Aske, amounted to 40,000 men; and wherever they advanced the monks and nuns were restored to their houses, and the nobility and gentry compelled to join their ranks. Their principal complaints were against the Lutheran doctrines and heretical books, the king's assumption of ecclesiastical supremacy, the game laws, and the cruel statutes regarding treason. The Duke of Norfolk endeavoured to disperse the insurgents by negotiation and by sowing dissensions among them. His army was too weak to hazard a battle; but the cold and stormy November weather soon made the rebels anxious to return to their houses and their agricultural

pursuits. In February 1537, they again assembled; but failing in three or four sieges of towns and castles, they finally disbanded. Henry's vengeance knew no bounds: the leaders were brought to London, and there beheaded: the inferior officers were hanged in great numbers at York, Hull, Carlisle, and Lincoln, sometimes seventy suffering in a single day.

The king's exultation at the destruction of the rebels was increased by the birth of a son, Prince Edward, on the 12th October 1537. His mother, Jane Seymour, died twelve days after from the effects of a severe cold.

15. Meanwhile Henry persevered in his destructive career, notwithstanding the representations of Cranmer and Latimer. The abolition of the monastic houses must have brought into the royal exchequer immense sums, but they were squandered in so extraordinary a manner, that the king was forced to call upon parliament for "a compensation for the expenses he had A. D. 1539. incurred in reforming the religion of the state;" and that slavish body voted him two-tenths and two-fifteenths for this express purpose. Innumerable works of art were destroyed, and magnificent specimens of architecture defaced for ever. Mosaic pavements, painted windows, church bells, and libraries, were broken to pieces or sold; while whole shiploads of manuscripts were sent as waste paper to foreign countries. As a necessary result, pauperism increased; education declined; the schools and universities were deserted. In the reign of Edward VI., Latimer declared, that the number of students had decreased by 10,000. Benefices were bestowed by their patrons on menial servants by way of wages or reward. Miles Coverdale and his associates, who translated and printed the first English Bible, never received any proper recompense; the former was left in great poverty; and the printers, to remunerate themselves, set so high a price on the Bible that its circulation became very limited.

With all their numerous faults, monastic institutions were, perhaps, a necessary evil during the middle ages. They served as hospitals to the poor, inns to the traveller, a nucleus of civilisation, learning, and religion in remote districts. But no attempts were made to supply the gaps occasioned by their destruction.

A. D. 1539. Parliament, indeed, enacted that new bishoprics, deaneries, and colleges should be endowed with revenues from the monastic lands; but both lands and money had been already appropriated. The new bishoprics were reduced from eighteen

to six—Westminster, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, and Gloucester; but these were so poorly endowed that their bishops had scarcely the means of living.

Henry's infallibility was not yet so generally received by the clergy as to prevent all dissent; and the fires of Smithfield frequently consumed at the same time the opposers as well as the defenders of the Romish doctrines.

The papal bull of excommunication had been now some time published, to the serious uneasiness of the king, who was not ignorant of the disgust excited among his brother monarchs by his cruelties. Fearing enemies from every quarter, he determined to rid himself of those at home, from whose rank or influence he might have cause of distrust. Cardinal Pole was by his mother, Margaret, countess of Salisbury, descended from George, duke of Clarence, the unfortunate brother of Edward IV., and consequently Henry's second cousin. Although patronized and protected by the king, and promised the richest promotion in his gift, the high-minded Reginald would not undertake the defence of the royal divorce; but preferred retiring to the north of Italy, where with indignant eloquence he proclaimed the baseness of Henry's motives. Unable to reach him, the king determined to punish him through his relations; and accordingly his two brothers, Lord Montacute and Sir Geoffrey Pole, with the Marquis of Exeter, Sir Edward Neville, and others, were arrested about the end of the year 1538. Early in 1539, after an irregular trial, they were all found guilty and executed, save Geoffrey Pole, whose life was spared. In April following, the venerable Countess of Salisbury, then seventy years old; Gertrude, widow of the Marquis of Exeter; Lord Montacute's son, a boy of tender years, with Sir Adrian Fortescue and Sir Thomas Dingley, were attainted by the obsequious parliament. The two last were executed in July; the aged countess was kept in prison until May 1541, and then on some frivolous pretence dragged to the scaffold. The lives of the others were spared.

16. THE BLOODY STATUTE.—In order to promote an alliance with the protestant states of Germany to oppose the coalition of the catholic powers, Henry sent ambassadors to the continent; but the Lutherans, who considered him a slave to the worst dogmas of the papal church, would not listen to his proposals, except on conditions which he could not accept. In vexation at his disappointment the king evinced an anxiety to become reconciled to the catholic party, and a committee of

spiritual lords was appointed to examine into the diversity of opinions in matters of faith, with a view to a final agreement.

A.D. 1532. } After much discussion the Six Articles, or the *bloody statute*, as they were afterwards called, were adopted,—the joint production of Bishop Gardiner and the king. They were unhesitatingly approved of by the clergy in convocation, and by the parliament. These notorious articles were: 1. That Christ was really present in the eucharist under the forms, but without the substance, of bread and wine; 2. That communion under both kinds was not necessary to salvation; 3. That priests could not marry; 4. That vows of chastity must be observed; 5. That private masses are essential; 6. That auricular confession is expedient and necessary. The penalties against all infringement of these articles were death and confiscation, and the married priests were immediately to separate from their wives under pain of imprisonment. It is remarkable that Crammer, who assisted in drawing up these articles, was a married man, and that his wife, the niece of the protestant pastor Osiander, had borne him several children. By the same parliament which passed these Six Articles, it was enacted that the king's proclamations should have the force of law, and that all transgressions against them should be visited with the severest penalties on body and goods.

17. Cromwell, to thwart the progress of the Romish party at court, now proposed that Henry should marry Anne of Cleves, sister of the reigning Duke of Cleves, one of the princes of the protestant confederacy. The widower king had made proposals to various royal houses, but was rejected by all; and although he found on the first interview that the Flemish princess had been greatly flattered by her portrait-painter, he was nevertheless reluctantly induced to consent to the marriage (January 1540). His repugnance, however, to his new wife increased every day, and at the end of six months Anne was divorced, and Catherine Howard, niece to the Duke of Norfolk, raised to the queenly throne (July 28).

This unfortunate matrimonial scheme proved fatal to Cromwell. Catherine Howard was a papist, and her uncle made use of her influence with the king to procure the ruin of his mortal enemy. On the 10th of June the vicegerent was arrested on a charge of high-treason, and on the 28th of July he was brought to the scaffold.

Henry now seemed to think his sum of happiness complete, and during a progress he made to the north, Catherine Howard

was his constant companion. But the cup was soon dashed from his unworthy lips. Rumours of the queen's incontinence previous to her marriage reached the king's ears, and after a most extraordinary inquiry, in which all the forms of law and justice were violated, Catherine Howard was condemned and executed within the walls of the Tower. Lady Rochford, who had borne testimony against her own husband and her sister-in-law, Anne Boleyn, suffered at the same time (1542). Every impartial inquirer into this bloody tragedy is inevitably led to the conclusion that Catherine Howard, like Henry's second queen, was the victim of a jealous voluptuary, and that in neither case were the charges substantiated by anything deserving the name of evidence.

Henry once more directed his whole attention to religion and politics, condemning and punishing those diversities of opinion in his subjects from which he himself was not free. The Bible was now forbidden to be read in public, and its private perusal was restricted to certain classes; while servants of every kind were liable to imprisonment for even opening the book.

In 1543 was published "A necessary Doctrine and Erudition for any Christian Man," a work usually called the "King's Book." In this it was laid down that the reading and studying of the Holy Scriptures was necessary only for those whose office it was to teach; and in this opinion all the bishops concurred, parliament authorizing Henry to make whatever changes he might consider proper. The fires of persecution, however, waxed dim: a common danger had produced a mutual sympathy; and during the next four years only twenty-four persons suffered death for their religion, of whom fourteen were Protestants and ten Romanists.

In 1536, Wales was united to England, and placed under the same government. Hitherto that principality had been divided into two parts; one governed by English laws, the other acknowledging the feudal customs of the petty lordships, 141 in number, and which were frequently engaged in hostilities with one another. Every Welsh shire and one borough in each was allowed to return a member to the English parliament.

18. IRISH INSURRECTION.—Ireland might have been happy during this reign but for the factions of her great lords, which kept her disunited, weak, and poor. In 1522, the Earl of Kildare was made lord-deputy, but recalled on the complaints

of his inveterate enemies, the Butlers. The earl was desired to leave a deputy behind him, and he had the folly to appoint his own son Thomas, a rash and inexperienced youth, to this high and difficult office. The young man thus put at the head of a large territory used to keep the great officers of state and other persons of wisdom and experience waiting on his pleasure, and thus made more bitter enemies by slighting them than he might have made by oppressing them. While he was in the height of his career, a rumour was spread that his father had been beheaded in England. The young man rushed through the streets of Dublin followed by his partisans of the native Irish, many of whom entered the council hall along with him. He there threw down the sword of state, said he would draw his own sword, and renounced his allegiance to the crown of England. The lord-chancellor, to whom he handed the sword, kindly took him by the wrist, and with tears implored him to reflect on his action, and at all events to assure himself that the rumour of his father's death was true before he brought ruin on himself and his family. Perhaps the venerable statesman's effort might have been successful; but the Irish followers of the young deputy, who did not know what the chancellor was saying, grew impatient, and a harper who was present, striking up a strain of martial music, called on Silken Thomas, as the youth was named, to linger there no longer, but to go forth to his great destinies. This fired the train, and rushing onward, the deputy was at once the leader of a wild body of insurgents. They murdered the Archbishop of Dublin, and opened communications with the emperor and the pope. They failed, however, in their attempts upon Dublin, and were driven by the rival Butler faction into the wilds of Munster and Connaught. Fitzgerald soon after surrendered to Skeffington, the new deputy, and
 A. D. } being sent to London, was there beheaded with his five
 1537. } uncles. His father had been more fortunate in a natural death.

The strength of the Fitzgeralds lay principally in their resistance to Henry's innovations; and on their arrest the opposition was carried on by the Archbishop of Armagh. By a violent stretch of the royal prerogative, the whole body of the Irish clergy had been excluded from the parliament; and then statutes were enacted abolishing the papal authority, declaring Henry supreme head of the church, and giving him the first fruits and tithes and estates of all the suppressed

monasteries. While the Irish factions quarrelled with each other, the English government treated them all alike without mercy. O'Neil, the great northern chieftain, revolted against the new system of church government: his country was given over to fire and sword, and in the many vicissitudes of the war, the territory under the dominion of the English suffered the like evils in its turn.

In 1542, Ireland was raised from a lordship into a kingdom; and in order to attach the powerful native chiefs and great Anglo-Irish proprietors to the crown, many of them were admitted to the honours of the peerage. Ulliac de Burgh became earl of Clanricarde; Murrough O'Brien, earl of Thomond; and O'Neil, earl of Tyrone,—all consenting to hold their lands by military tenure, swearing fealty to Henry, and accepting from him houses in Dublin, which they were to occupy when summoned as peers to the Irish parliament.

19. On the 12th of July 1543, Henry married his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, widow of Lord Latimer, a woman of ripe years, well educated, and of the reformed faith. He became ambitious of shaking the power of his old rival and friend Francis I., and concluded a treaty with the Emperor of Germany for the partition of France. By great exertions an army of 30,000 men was raised, which invaded France, but accomplished no more than the capture of Boulogne, after a siege of two months' duration.

The continental wars and extravagance of the court had reduced Henry from one of the richest to one of the poorest sovereigns of Europe. The immense plunder of the church benefited him little, but seemed rather to verify the common adage applied to ill-gotten wealth, "that the devil's corn goes all to bran." The supplies voted by parliament, although of unprecedented amount, were soon spent, and constant recourse was had to illegal means of filling the royal treasury. In 1545, Henry's officers drew up returns showing the value of each man's estate, and to every person rated at £50 a letter was addressed requesting a loan to a certain amount. None dared refuse compliance, and as soon as the money was collected, parliament voted a donation of all sums thus raised, in addition to what he had borrowed since his accession. The same slavish body granted him the disposal of all the colleges, charities, and hospitals in the kingdom, on an assurance that their wealth of whatever kind should be employed to the glory of God and the public good. Such wholesale

far exceeds anything that has been witnessed in England since the ravages of the Danes. The king, besides having recourse to forced benevolences, adulterated the coinage, and the standard was so far lowered that the shilling contained twice as much alloy as silver.

Henry was now rapidly approaching his end. For some years before his death, he was subject to a painful disease which made his temper more furious and tyrannical. His queen must have led a life of inconceivable misery, for she knew herself to be marked out for destruction, and was only saved by death overtaking the tyrant. The accomplished Earl of Surrey was his last victim. In December 1546 the earl, with his father the Duke of Norfolk, was arrested and sent to the Tower, and on the following day arraigned on a charge of treason for quartering the royal arms with the coat of his own family. The accusation was trivial, but the private hostility of the Seymour family exaggerated its enormity, and the compliant jury pronounced him guilty. On the 19th of January, he was beheaded in the Tower with extreme privacy, and a studious suppression of all circumstances attending his death. The Duke of Norfolk was destined for A.D. } a similar fate, but on the 28th day of January, the
1547. } tyrant himself died in the fifty-sixth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign; and those whose life had been one of terror and uncertainty, could breathe freely. So ended a wicked reign, in which, nevertheless, the seeds of much good were sown. It is a history of little else than tyranny and cruelty, but it must not be supposed that the country at large was subjected to his despotic caprices. None could approach the court or fill any place of high rank and power without danger; but the ordinary people lived quietly, and the law was administered among them with tolerable impartiality.

EXERCISES.

1. Mention some of the circumstances attending Henry's coronation. How did the influence of the two houses of York and Lancaster become united in his person? Were the people contented? What occurred in Ireland?

2. What was the conduct of the Earl of Lincoln? How was the impostor Simnel crowned? What battle was fought near Newark? In what station did Simnel spend the remainder of his days? Describe what occurred in contemplation of a war with France.

3. Whom did the person called Perkin Warbeck represent himself to be? What woman of high rank aided him, and what name did she give him? What steps did Henry take? What was the result of Warbeck's invasion?

esa

4. Describe the conduct of James IV. What occurred in Devonshire? What was the result of Warbeck's descent on Cornwall? What was his subsequent history? What doubts are there about his origin?

5. Mention the peculiar circumstances of the marriages of the young princes. What were the king's own matrimonial projects and their result? What were the circumstances of his death?

6. Was Henry VII. a warlike prince? What did he protect and foster? What discoverer did he send out? What was his main vice? How did he succeed in his extortions?

7. How did the reign of Henry VIII. open? What failings did he soon show? What was the national feeling on a war with France? What affair was called "The Battle of the Spurs?"

8. What was Wolsey's origin? Describe his progress and character. How did he recommend himself to the king? Describe the conduct of Henry towards Francis I. What was "the Field of the Cloth of Gold"?

9. What was the fate of the Duke of Buckingham? What did the king do in support of the popedom? How was he called "Defender of the Faith"? What league was signed at Calais?

10. What project was arranged between Henry and the emperor? What plans did the King of France devise as to Ireland? Describe the attempts made by Henry and Wolsey to raise money, and their result.

11. What occurred in the year 1527? What induced Henry to profess scruples against his marriage? What was the conduct of the pope? What cardinal legate was sent to England? Where did he hold his court? Give an account of the fall of Wolsey. Repeat Shakspeare's account of his character.

12. What was Cranmer's suggestion? What bodies did the king consult? Give an account of Cromwell. What great step did he counsel? How was England finally severed from the authority of the pope? What domestic change did the king accomplish at the same time? What was the fate of Anne Boleyn? Whom did Henry next marry?

13. Who was the Holy Maid of Kent? What were her prophecies and fate? What other persons were persecuted? Give an account of the bull of Pope Paul III. What arrangements did Henry make for getting possession of the ecclesiastical revenues?

14. State the results of the ecclesiastical changes. What was done in relation to the Bible? How were the changes received by the people? Give an account of Aske's rebellion.

15. How did Henry use the wealth he obtained? What objects of value and interest were destroyed on account of his measures? What was the immediate effect of the alterations? Give an account of Cardinal Pole. What was the fate of the Countess of Salisbury?

16. What induced the king to adopt the Six Articles? What name are they known by? What were the contents of these articles? What other important measure did parliament pass?

17. What was the history of Anne of Cleves? Who succeeded her? What effect had this new alliance on Cromwell? What was the fate of Catherine Howard? How did Henry proceed with those who differed from him in opinion? What took place as to Wales?

18. Whom did Kildare leave as his deputy in Ireland? What was the conduct of his son? Describe the scene in the council hall. What name did his followers give the young deputy? What was his fate? What else occurred in Ireland?

19. Who was Henry's sixth wife? What warlike operation did he attempt? Describe some of Henry's financial schemes. Give the particulars of the Earl of Surrey's fate. When did Henry die? Who were saved from destruction by his death? What was the character of his reign?

CHAPTER XVIII.

SCOTLAND FROM THE RESTORATION OF INDEPENDENCE TO THE
DEATH OF JAMES V., 1329—1542.

King Robert Bruce—Scottish Independence—Douglas and the King's Heart—David II.—The Stewart Race—The Duke of Rothesay—Battle of Harlaw—The Foul Raid—Death of the Regent Albany—James I.—Legislative Reforms—Rebellion of the Lord of the Isles—Murder of the King—James II.—Turbulence of the Douglasses—Overthrow of the Livingston Faction—Siege of Roxburgh—James III.—War with England—Conspiracy of the great Barons at Lauder—Archibald Bell-the-Cat—Civil War—Murder of the King—James IV.—Perkin Warbeck at the Scottish Court—Battle of Flodden—James V.—Albany made Regent—Hostile Factions and English Intrigues—The Douglas Family banished—Meeting of the Army—Death of the King.

1. WHEN we last left the Scots in order to detail the more important history of England, they had just gained the memorable battle of Bannockburn. On the 17th of March 1329, the independence of Scotland was formally acknowledged by the treaty of Northampton; and on the 12th of July, David, the heir to the throne, was married to Joanna the daughter of Edward II. The brave King Robert Bruce died on the 7th June 1329. But after the soul had departed from it, his body seemed still to connect itself with romantic incidents. His heart was preserved in a silver case, and his faithful follower, the Lord James of Douglas, with a goodly band of Scottish warriors, undertook to convey it to the Holy Land, in compliance with the dying king's request. In Spain they aided the Spaniards against the Saracens, and being hard pressed in the fight, Douglas undid from his neck, where it usually hung, the silver casket containing the heart, and flinging it forward among the enemy, cried out, "Onward as thou wert wont, thou noble heart, Douglas shall follow thee." At the end of the fight he was found lying dead upon the heart. The body of the king was buried in the old Norman abbey of Dunfermline. In the year 1818, a skeleton was there found covered with lead and wax; it was of large and strong frame, and even the bones bore the marks of wounds. These were fully believed to be the remains of Robert Bruce.

and they were again buried with honour and distinction after an interval of nearly five hundred years.

Robert was succeeded by his son David II., a child only four years old, and the government was managed by Randolph earl of Murray as regent. The English made many efforts at this time to repossess themselves of Scotland, and some of their inroads and battles have already been described. They professed to support the claims of Edward Baliol, who was actually for some time in possession of the throne, and was

24th Sept. } crowned as king ; within a few months afterwards,
1332. } however, he was driven from Scotland. When

David died he left no children, and the nation was anxious that a descendant of their favourite King Robert Bruce should rule over them. His daughter Marjory had married Walter the steward of Scotland, and their son Robert was
A. D. } chosen king, thus founding the celebrated royal line
1370. } of Stewart, so remarkable for its romantic history, its greatness, and its misfortunes. Robert II. had a son John, who was destined to be his successor ; but the populace were partial to the name of the great king who had conquered at Bannockburn, and so his name was changed to Robert.

This amiable and intelligent prince had passed his fiftieth
A. D. } year before he ascended the throne. He had suffered
1399. } from a wound early in life, and gradually became unfit for government, his brother, the Earl of Fife, afterwards Duke of Albany, with the title of Guardian, being ruler both of the kingdom and of the king. As Robert's son, the Duke of
A. D. } Rothesay, grew up, a strong party of the nobility
1398. } rallied round him, and compelled Albany to resign his post ; and when Henry IV. invaded Scotland in 1400, the government was in the hands of the heir-apparent. But Rothesay's thoughtless character and licentious life proved
A. D. } his ruin. The old king gave Albany an order to ar-
1402. } rest him ; he was imprisoned in Falkland Castle, and there starved to death.

Hostile operations against England were now resumed ; but the battles of Nesbit Moor and Homildon Hill were adverse to the Scottish arms, and not long after, James, Robert's second son, and heir-apparent to the crown, fell into the hands of the English monarch during the existence of a truce between the two kingdoms. Robert died about a year after (1406), and the parliament of Perth continued Albany in the regency.

2. BATTLE OF HARLAW.—From the beginning of the reign of the Stewarts down to the year 1411, a species of war was carried on between the Highlands and the Lowlands of Scotland. It is generally said that the Highlanders were then turbulent and rebellious, but in fact they had not yet been subdued and made part of the kingdom of Scotland. They spoke a different language from the Lowlanders, had different laws and customs, and professed allegiance to kings of their own, who, whenever they were strong enough, asserted that they were independent of the King of Scotland. The last of these kings, called Donald of the Isles, claimed an earldom in the north of Scotland, which the regent refused, and Donald, considering himself powerful enough to go to war with the Lowlands, led a large army of Highlanders through the low country of Aberdeenshire. He was encountered at a place called Harlaw by the Lowland forces, who were fewer in number but better armed and disciplined. A fierce battle was fought, in which many distinguished men both Lowland
 24th July } and Celtic were killed. Its memory is still pre-
 1411. } served as one of the most bloody and important in the history of Scotland. In fact it first decided the supremacy of the king who reigned in Edinburgh over the king who reigned in the Western Islands, and made Scotland one monarchy. If Donald of the Isles had been victorious, his descendants might perhaps have long reigned over Scotland.

Albany, desirous of retaining his more than royal power, strove again to plunge his country into a war with England, and in 1417 broke the existing truce by what was long popularly remembered as the "Foul Raid." He marched towards the border at the head of 60,000 men, and laid siege to Roxburgh, but hastily retreated on hearing of the advance of an English army, which, in revenge, laid waste all the south of Scotland. This attempt was probably made at the instigation of France, with which Albany had always maintained a close alliance. In 1419, the Duke of Vendôme was despatched by the dauphin to solicit aid, and the Earl of Buchan was sent over with 7000 troops. These brave men, together with 5000 more subsequently taken over by the Earl of Douglas, were nearly annihilated in the bloody fields of Crevant and Verneuil.

On the 8d of September 1419, the Duke of Albany died at the age of eighty years, during thirty-four of which he held the supreme power under the nominal reigns of his father,

brother, and nephew. He was the chief of the feudal nobility, by whom he was supported both against the crown and the people, and whom, in return, he protected in all their local oppression and despotism. Early historians paint in the gloomiest colours the feudal tyranny under which Scotland groaned during his long administration.

Murdoch, almost as a matter of course, assumed the regency after his father's death; but he possessed neither the capacity nor the ambition of the old duke, and allowed the power to fall from his hands, till at last his government became a mere anarchy. After Henry V. returned from his glorious expedition to France, he liberated the Scottish monarch, who had been detained nineteen years a prisoner. Before returning to Scotland, James married Lady Joanna Beaufort, the duke of Somerset's daughter, of whom he had become enamoured some years previously, on beholding her from his prison in the round tower of Windsor Castle. He arrived in Scotland in April 1424, and was crowned at Scone with his queen on the 21st of May following.

3. *James I.*—On leaving a prison for a throne, James had many difficulties to encounter. He found that the reduction of the power of the nobility was indispensable both for his own security and for the good government and peace of his subjects. When fully informed of the universal violence and rapine that prevailed, he is said to have exclaimed: "Let God but grant me life, and by his help I shall make the key keep the castle, and the furze-bush the cow, throughout my dominions, though I should lead the life of a dog to complete it." In a parliament held at Perth five days after his coronation, numerous regulations were enacted for correcting the manifold disorders of the kingdom; but their roots lay too deep to be reached by legislation alone. Nine days after the meeting of another parliament in 1428, Murdoch, his son Alexander, and twenty-six of the principal barons, were arrested, Walter Stewart, Murdoch's eldest son, having been seized some time before. Walter, Murdoch, Alexander, and the Earl of Lennox were beheaded at Stirling, and their estates forfeited to the crown. The other nobles were set at liberty.

James continued his endeavours to promote the improvement of his kingdom, and to remedy the evils of a long course of misgovernment, by means of a series of legislative enactments, comprehending the subjects of agriculture, commerce, foreign and domestic manufactures, the regulation of weights

and measures, the police of the country, its defence against foreign invasion both by sea and land, the administration of justice, and even the constitution of the supreme government. These measures, which are still preserved, present the most complete collection of materials in existence for illustrating the internal condition of any European state at this remote era. He at the same time called into activity the industry and resources of the kingdom by concluding treaties of commerce with France, Flanders, and other countries.

In the Highlands, which were in a manner a newly conquered country, the authority of the laws was still feeble; and James, resolved to repress the turbulence of the nobles in the north, as he had already done in the south, assembled a parliament at Inverness in 1427, where fifty heads of clans were seized. Some immediately suffered death, others were executed after a judicial inquiry; and a number were condemned to a brief imprisonment. Among the last was Alexander, the lord of the Isles, who, upon being liberated after a confinement of two years, again rose in insurrection, collected his followers, and burned the town of Inverness. James immediately marched against him, and defeated his forces. Alexander soon after threw himself on the royal mercy: his life was spared, but he was sent prisoner to Tantallan Castle. Donald Balloch, a near relation of the islander's, also raised the standard of revolt; but the insurrection was speedily repressed, and the chieftain lost his life.

The king found that during the long regency the crown had been greatly impoverished by many lavish alienations of the royal domains, which he now determined to resume; and several of the most eminent of the nobility were accordingly stripped of the estates which they and their ancestors had held undisturbed for many years. This proceeding proved fatal to himself.

4. During the long hostilities in the minority of Henry VI., Scotland had kept a watchful eye on the interests of Charles VII. of France. James I., notwithstanding his supposed attachment to England, where he had passed his youth, had received ambassadors from the French king, renewed his alliance with France, and promised his daughter's hand to the young dauphin. The English government became alarmed, and sent Lord Scrope to remind James of the treaties by which the two kingdoms were united, and to negotiate a marriage between Henry VI. and the Scottish princess. The

Scotch parliament, on being consulted, refused the offers of England; but all hope of accommodation was not lost, when a powerful nobleman, revolting against James, was assisted in his rebellion by certain English lords who crossed the borders with reinforcements. These were dispersed by the Earl of Angus; but the King of Scotland complained of this infraction of the treaties, openly connected himself with Charles VII., and intrusted to him his infant child. To intercept the vessel that was bearing her to France, the English council sent a numerous fleet to cruise in the North Sea, but without effect. This rendered James so indignant that he declared war against England, and laid siege to Roxburgh. Considerable progress had been made in the siege, when from some secret cause, which has never been explained, the king suddenly abandoned it and retired to the interior of the country.

MURDER OF JAMES I.—Perhaps the king had received a hint that some of his subjects were conspiring against his life; but if he did, it was not sufficient to put him fully on his guard. He was afterwards enjoying the Christmas festivities

20th Feb. }
1437. } merrily and carelessly in the building of the Black Friars at Perth, when a frightful tragedy was accomplished. On his way thither he was encountered by a Highland woman, who, pretending to be a prophetess, told him that if he passed the Firth of Forth he would never return alive. She probably knew what was in preparation. It has been mentioned that James had made many enemies among the barons, and one who felt himself deeply injured, Sir Robert Graham, determined to take his life. This man held the authority of a chief over the wild Highlanders of the Atholl mountains, and when James went to Perth he was so near their fastnesses that they could easily accomplish their scheme. The king half-dressed was standing by the fire chatting with the queen and her ladies, when a strange noise was heard without, and James readily divined its true cause. The women ran to secure the doors, but found to their dismay that the bolts were removed. On this, one of them, Catherine Douglas, a slender girl, thrust her arm into the staple, but the ruffians dashed against the door, and broke the bone. The king had time to wrench up part of the floor and descend to a vault, from which he might have escaped, had it not been that a day or two before he had ordered the outer opening of it to be built up, because the balls fell into it as he played at tennis. After some difficulty the murderers found their

victim, and after a severe struggle despatched him with their long knives.

The monarch thus slain was in the forty-fourth year of his age and the thirteenth of his actual reign. The conspirators, though they succeeded in taking his life, failed in every one of their main objects; and although in the first instance they escaped, they were all eventually taken and put to death, every complicated refinement of torture being applied to increase and protract their expiring agonies.

5. *James II.*—The only son of their murdered king, then a child in his sixth year, was immediately crowned at Holyrood as James II. The early part of this reign is so confused that a full detail of all its events would not be easily made intelligible. The royal infant and his mother were constantly prisoners in the hands of Sir William Crichton the chancellor, Sir Alexander Livingston, who had been appointed keeper of the royal person, or of the Douglasses; but as the boy grew up he evinced his inheritance of his father's ability, and his determination to be king in reality as well as in name. To put an end to the intestine feuds which disturbed the country, and which were fomented by William, fifth earl of Douglas, a youth of seventeen, an assembly of the estates was called at Edinburgh in 1440, which the earl and his younger brother attended. Crichton invited them to sup with the king in the castle, where they were treacherously seized as they sat at table, and hurried to execution. In a few years, however, the power of that great baronial house was revived in the person of William, eighth earl of Douglas,—the most formidable subject of the crown at the time when James II. began to take the management of affairs into his own hands. The king, though so young, proceeded with the utmost caution and dissimulation. The lord chancellor and Kennedy, bishop of St Andrews, were chosen as his confidential advisers. The first blow was struck at the Livingstons, the heads of which ^{A.D. 1440.} faction were seized and thrown into prison. A few were executed, the rest submitted; and their power was completely broken. Douglas was not so easily overthrown, his great territorial possessions in the most important district of the kingdom making him almost a rival potentate. The earl's cruelty and oppression exasperated the king to the highest degree, and James resorted to policy to effect what force might have failed to accomplish. He was summoned to Stirling Castle, where in a conversation between him and the

king, in which bitter words were exchanged, the latter gave way to his passion, and stabbed Douglas to the heart. This occurred in February 1452, when James was only twenty-one years old. An assembly of the estates was immediately convened at Edinburgh, by which the Douglas faction, being declared enemies of the state, were compelled to flee across the border. The brother of the murdered earl never relinquished his hope of vengeance, and by his instrumentality the king became involved in hostilities with England. Putting himself at the head of his army, James proceeded to invade the southern kingdom, and laid siege to Roxburgh Castle. That fortress, however, which had been in the hands of the English more than a century, held out resolutely. It was therefore resolved to batter down the walls; and while the king was superintending the operations, one of the cannons burst and killed him on the spot.

In this manner perished James II. on the third of August 1460, in the twenty-ninth year of his age and twenty-fourth of his reign. The same day the queen arrived, and exhorted the nobles to continue the siege, saying that she would bring them another king. She then led her son into the camp, who was joyfully saluted sovereign by the army; upon which the garrison surrendered, and the castle was levelled with the ground.

6. *James III.*, who was only in his eighth year, was immediately proclaimed at Kelso, Lord Robert Boyd, the chancellor, with the Archbishop of St Andrews and Glasgow, and the Bishop of Dunkeld, conducting public affairs during his minority. The early history of this reign, with merely a change in the names of the actors, is little more than a repetition of the turbulent scenes of the last, the Boyds and Hamiltons being substituted for the Livingstons and Douglases. This youthful monarch was of a very different character from his two predecessors: he permitted himself to be governed by favourites; and was indolent and unwarlike, though not without a taste for literature.

The chancellor's brother, Sir Alexander, was one of the king's bosom friends, and his influence at court was all-prevailing. For some years the government was in the hands of the Boyds; but in the year 1469, they suddenly lost their influence; Alexander was seized and beheaded, and Lord Boyd escaped into England, where he died of grief. James now received into favour men of humble rank, and so disgusted

the nobility, that they held a meeting, at which his two brothers, John duke of Albany, and Alexander earl of Mar, presided. As they were of a very different character from James, they may have cherished the design of taking the government into their own hands; but whatever may have been their intentions, they were speedily defeated by the prompt measures of the king. Mar was arrested in 1480 on a charge of seeking to destroy the king's life by witchcraft, and immediately put to death. Albany escaped to France, whence he returned in 1482, and made a treaty with Edward IV., in which he assumed the title of Alexander, king of Scotland, consenting to receive the crown from the English monarch as his superior lord. In consequence of this agreement, the Duke of Gloucester, who for two years had been carrying on a desultory war on the border, pressed northwards through Scotland. The town of Berwick was surrendered, A.D. }
1482 } but the castle still held out. King James, having assembled his barons, marched southwards; but while his army lay at Lauder, his nobles, headed by Archibald Douglas, earl of Angus, called, after this event, "Archibald Bell-the-cat," burst into their sovereign's tent, carried off his favourite, Robert Cochrane, with five more of the king's friends, and hanged them over the bridge of Lauder. Upon this James fled to Edinburgh, the army disbanded, and the road to the capital lay open to Gloucester and Albany, who entered it in July. They were, however, received as friends, and after some negotiation, the English troops evacuated Scotland, the town and castle of Berwick being resigned to Edward. A short time after these events, a reconciliation was effected between the king and Albany, the latter being appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom. He did not, however, long enjoy his new power: a revolution drove him from office into rebellion, and he was speedily compelled to flee once more to England, where he found Richard III. by no means disposed to aid him. Thence he sought refuge in France, where he ended his days. The war with England A.D. }
1484 } was terminated by a treaty of peace which was to last three years.

MURDER OF JAMES III.—James III., who had immediately recognised Richmond as king of England, soon found that his new ally was a treacherous friend, and ever ready to support the factious aristocracy against the crown. The Scotch barons were still formidable, although the turbulent

Albany was dead, and Douglas confined in the monastery of Lindores. They had gained over the Duke of Rothesay, the king's eldest son, with some of the superior clergy, and received encouragement from the English king. The parliament supported their sovereign, and passed several severe measures against the Earl of Argyll and others; but as soon as that body adjourned, Rothesay assumed the title of King of Scotland, and put himself at the head of the discontented barons. Henry immediately recognised the son, and James III. with difficulty escaped from Edinburgh into Fifeshire, whence he fled to the north, where he was soon at the head of 30,000 men. After some fruitless negotiations, the two armies met at Little Canglar, about a mile from the ever memorable field of Bannockburn. The conflict continued some time with great obstinacy, but at last the royal troops began to waver, and the lords who surrounded James implored him to leave the field while there was yet a chance of safety. To this advice he consented, and as he galloped through the adjoining village, he was thrown from his horse, and carried in a state of insensibility into a miller's cottage. On recovering his consciousness he incautiously revealed his rank, and earnestly desired that a priest might be procured to whom he might confess before he died. A person professing to be one was found among a party of stragglers from the victorious army, and being admitted into the cottage, he bent over the king, under pretence of discharging his holy office, and stabbed his unresisting victim to the heart. At the time of his death, James was in the thirty-

11th June }
1488. } fifth year of his age and the twenty-eighth of his reign.

7. *James IV.* succeeded his father at the age of sixteen; but there were still some bold men who, faithful to the murdered monarch, refused submission, and raised the standard of revolt. Lord Forbes marched through the country with a blood-stained shirt, said to be the late king's, fixed upon a spear, as a banner, and at the same time Lord Lyle occupied the strong castle of Dumbarton, while the Earl of Lennox, Lord Darnley, and others, armed their vassals. But James, who was an active and warlike prince, soon suppressed this rebellion, and by his clemency in the hour of triumph reconciled the disaffected barons to his government.

It has been mentioned that Perkin Warbeck, the pretender to the English throne, was royally received at the court of

James IV. It has been supposed that this was done by way of retaliation against Henry VII. for some acts of treachery. At the very moment when James was negotiating for the settlement of certain border differences, and for a prolongation of the truce between the two kingdoms, Henry entered into an agreement with Lord Bothwell, the Earl of Buchan, and Sir Thomas Tod, for the seizure of the Scottish king and of his brother the Duke of Ross, the heir-apparent to the throne. This project entirely failed; but in the following year another disgraceful plot was concluded with the Earl of Angus, a refugee at the English court. These and other circumstances of a similar nature may account for the warm reception Perkin Warbeck received in Scotland.

Henry did not immediately declare against the Scottish king, but endeavoured to withdraw him from the adventurer's interest by the offer of the hand of his eldest daughter Margaret. James, however, required certain conditions, which were declared inadmissible, and Henry satisfied himself in the meantime with corrupting the discontented Scottish barons. Early in the winter of 1496, Warbeck crossed the borders at the head of a motley host of French, Germans, Flemings, and Scots, James having coined his plate, and even the great chain of gold he was accustomed to wear round his neck, to provide money for the war. Want of provisions, and dissensions among the soldiers, soon compelled the invaders to return into Scotland without even waiting for the sight of an English army.

In August 1503, James IV. was married to the Princess Margaret of England. She was an exemplary and constant wife; but her fidelity was ill rewarded by the wandering king, whose fondness for pleasure drove him into the society of other and less virtuous females. It was believed that this alliance would settle the differences between England and Scotland; but more than two hundred years elapsed before the nations were well united, and but a few years had passed over the marriage, when they encountered each other once more on the battle-field.

Soon after the accession of Henry VIII., jealousies broke out between the two nations. It was said that he had taken possession of some jewels that should have belonged to his sister the Queen of Scots, but, what was of far more importance, some Scottish vessels had been attacked by English ships of war. Preparing for an outbreak, Henry put the

southern counties in a state of defence, and gave the command of an army on the border to the Earl of Surrey.

BATTLE OF FLODDEN.—On the 22d of August 1513, James IV. crossed the Tweed with one of the most formidable armies that had ever invaded England. He took the castles of Norham, Werk, and Ford; and resolved to wait for Surrey on Flodden Hill, an offshoot of the Cheviots, steep on both flanks, and defended in front by the deep and rapid Till. This position was too formidable to be attacked in front, and Surrey by a successful manœuvre placed himself between the Scottish forces and their own country. The two armies were nearly equal in number, each counting about 30,000 men. At four in the afternoon of the 9th September 1513, the battle began with a cannonade, in which the English were greatly superior. The contest was carried on with the most desperate valour until nightfall, when the Scots retreated. Surrey had suffered so dreadfully that he was unable to pursue them; but the loss on the other side, which amounted to eight or nine thousand men, was the more severe from its including the king and the flower of the Scottish nobility. Henry was so delighted at the news of this great victory, that he restored to the successful general the title of Duke of Norfolk, which had been forfeited by his father, who fell at Bosworth field.

The victory, however, was not followed up as it might have been under the Edwards, for there was no intention then of conquering Scotland, which Henry believed would soon be united to England. A peace was concluded, and the widowed queen was appointed regent during the minority of her son.

8. *James V.*—After the disastrous battle of Flodden and the death of James IV., Margaret, the queen-dowager and regent, married the Earl of Angus, the head of the house of Douglas, but young and weak-minded, with little to recommend him beyond a handsome person. By this marriage the post of regent was forfeited; and a hostile party of the nobility and clergy was intrusted with the keeping of the infant James V., and his younger brother Alexander duke of Ross. This divided the country into two factions—the English, headed by Margaret and Angus; and the French, which comprised most of the barons and the majority of the people; and the consequence was, that a civil war broke out, which compelled the queen-dowager to consult with her brother Henry, whose principal agent was Lord Dacre, a man as crafty as he was brave.

In May 1515, Albany returned to Scotland, to the great joy of the people, and shortly after assumed the office of regent, with as great devotion to the interests of France as his opponents had shown to those of England. But his want of talent, if not of courage, soon showed itself. English spies and agents filled every corner of the country, and the Douglasses and Homes were firm in their opposition.

One of Albany's first measures was to make sure of the persons of Margaret and of the young king and his brother. This the queen-mother prevented by removing with her children from Edinburgh to Stirling, which Ruthven and Borthwick immediately blockaded. Home fled to Newark Castle, and the Earl of Angus retired to his estates and armed his vassals. The queen soon surrendered, and after committing the young princes to the care of the earl-marshal, Albany marched against the insurgents, and took Home's castle. Margaret applied to Lord Dacre, and Home, after receiving assurance of support, seized upon Blacater Tower, about five miles from Berwick, whither the queen soon fled. The regent followed her, and as no assistance came from England, Margaret, Angus, and Home sought refuge at the English court. The last two soon returned and made their peace with Albany; while Henry dictatorially ordered the Scottish parliament to dismiss the regent.

Another insurrection now broke out, headed by Arran, Lennox, and Glencairn: this was speedily crushed, and the turbulent barons were pardoned; but Home and his brother were tried and executed as traitors. To obtain assistance from France, Albany visited that country in 1517, the queen-mother being allowed to return to Scotland, and to re-assume the regency. Her desire to establish her husband's authority led to numerous dissensions both domestic and public; and for some time Scotland was almost without a government. The capital was one scene of confusion: its streets were continually disturbed by bloody feuds, which were only terminated by Albany's return in 1521.

It was beyond the power of the regent to reconcile the contending factions, and his intimacy with the queen-mother caused a loud outcry through the country. Wolsey and Henry continued their intrigues in order to perpetuate and increase the confusion, and, in 1522, without any previous declaration of war, the Earl of Shrewsbury marched across the Tweed, penetrating as far as Kelso, and laying waste all

that beautiful district. He was, however, soon driven back into England by the border men of Merse and Teviotdale.

Albany now declared war: 80,000 men crowded round his standard at Annan, and advanced upon Carlisle. But the crafty Dacre arrested their progress, when within five miles of that city, by opening negotiations for peace, and on the 11th of September a truce was concluded which terminated this great expedition, at a time when there were no English troops to oppose it.

9. After the departure of Albany for France in 1522, Scotland was in a very embarrassed state; and Henry, while declaring the war against his nephew to be unnatural, continued to send troops to lay waste Teviotdale and the Merse. In 1523, the regent returned with a body of auxiliaries, upon whom the Scots looked with a jealous eye. His influence, also, with Margaret had been supplanted by another favourite. In October, he marched to the Tweed at the head of 40,000 men; but the advanced state of the season and dissensions among the army compelled him to retreat without having done anything worthy of so great an expedition. In disgust and despair he returned once more to the continent, and fought for Francis I. at the disastrous battle of Pavia.

Margaret now got possession of her son's person, and carrying him to Edinburgh, caused him to be declared of age, and proclaimed king, although at the time he was only twelve years old. Beaton, archbishop of St Andrews, and Dunbar, bishop of Aberdeen, were thrown into prison for their opposition to this ridiculous proceeding. The queen-mother's intrigues soon ruined her party; while her husband Angus, supported by Henry, and aided by the Douglasses, seized upon the government.

In 1528, King James, eager to free himself from the thralldom of Angus and his faction, escaped from their hands, and threw himself into Stirling Castle, where many powerful noblemen crowded round him. His first free act was a proclamation forbidding Angus or any of the house of Douglas to approach within six miles of the court, and soon after he levied an army and drove them all across the border. To free his country from foreign dictation, he next formed an alliance with the emperor and the French king.

James, unlike his uncle, determined to maintain in Scotland the religion of his fathers, and to effect this the more securely he married the Princess Magdalen, daughter of the French

A.D. } king; but in a few months after he became a widower.
 1537. } His marriage with Mary of Guise was celebrated within a year from the decease of his first wife. This connexion and the disturbances in England confirmed James more than ever in his opposition to all religious reform, and the most stringent measures were taken against the heretics. A fancied insult to Henry led to a war between the two countries, which was principally confined to ravaging the border districts. On the Borough Muir, near Edinburgh, James had assembled an army of 30,000 men, with which he advanced to Fala Muir; but here they refused to proceed any farther and disbanded. To retrieve this disgrace, Lord Maxwell dashed across the border with 10,000 men; but they had no sooner reached English ground at Solway Moss than they mutinied, and fled before a handful of the enemy. This was a death-blow to James: he retired to Falkland, where he shut himself up, sitting for hours without speaking a word. A slow fever preyed upon him, and he died on the 14th of December 1542, seven days after the birth of his unfortunate daughter Mary. With prophetic truth he murmured with his dying breath, "The crown came with a lass, and it will go with a lass."

EXERCISES.

1. When and how was the independence of Scotland established? Mention a romantic incident connected with the heart of Robert the Bruce. Who succeeded him? What was the origin of the house of Stewart? Who became guardian and regent of the kingdom? What was the fate of the Duke of Rothesay?
2. What relation did the Highlands and the Lowlands bear to each other? Who was Donald of the Isles? Where was a great battle fought? What were its effects? What was called the "Foul Raid"? Who succeeded Albany in the regency?
3. In what state did James I. find the country? What did he undertake to do? Describe his proceedings. What did he accomplish in the Highlands? What step did he take against the nobility holding crown lands?
4. What intercourse did Scotland hold with France? What was the conduct of the English government on the occasion? How did James act? Describe the circumstances of his murder.
5. What renders the beginning of the reign of James II. confused? What treachery did Crichton perpetrate? What steps were taken against the factions? When and by whom was Douglas assassinated? How did James II. come by his death?
6. Describe the character of the early part of James the Third's reign. What disgusted the nobility? How did they treat the king's favourites? How were Albany's latter days spent? Who rebelled against James III.? Describe the manner of his death.
7. How did some of the nobility show their opposition to James IV.? What were the plots of Henry VII.? What aid did Perkin Warbeck receive in Scotland? Whom did James marry? What was expected to ensue

from the alliance? What occasioned a new war? Describe the inroad of the Scots in England and the battle of Flodden?

8. How was the country divided into factions? What interests did they support? Who became regent? What was the conduct of the queen-mother? What was the state of the country? How were its confusions increased?

9. What warlike operations did the regent attempt? Under what circumstances was James V. proclaimed? What was his first act on recovering his freedom? What alliance did he make with a foreign princess? Relate the circumstances which are supposed to have caused his death. What remarkable words did he utter as he was dying?

CHAPTER XIX.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF EDWARD VI. TO THE DEATH OF MARY, A. D. 1547—1558.

Edward VI.—The Protector Somerset—Ecclesiastical Commission of Inquiry—Reforms in Religion—Condition of the Poor—Mendicity Act—Agrarian Insurrection—Intrigues of Warwick and Execution of Somerset—Romanist Bishops ejected from their Sees—Northumberland's ambitious Schemes—Mary—Lady Jane Grey—Restoration of the Romish Worship—Marriage with Philip of Spain—Insurrections against the Marriage—Execution of Lady Jane Grey—Reconciliation with the Papal See—Character of Bishop Gardiner—Persecutions—Loss of Calais—England under Mary.

1. EDWARD was only nine years and a few months old when he succeeded his father. Henry had fixed his majority at nineteen, and appointed sixteen executors, assisted by twelve councillors, to administer the government until the king came of age. But the testamentary injunctions of even the most absolute princes are rarely respected after their death. And in a constitutional country it would be remembered that as it was only by act of parliament that his will had any validity, it would depend on the temper and opinions of future parliaments whether it would be followed up. The executors began by substituting the regency of a single individual, and Edward Seymour, earl of Hertford, the king's maternal uncle, was named protector and created Duke of Somerset. Within three months he was invested with the whole regal authority, and became king of England in everything except the name. One of his earliest acts was the invasion of Scotland, an account of which will be given elsewhere.

The protector, who was well inclined towards the reformed

opinions, concerted with Cranmer to uproot the papal religion in England; but as an immense majority of the people still adhered to the old ritual, and were supported by several bishops and many of the new nobility, they resolved to proceed gradually in their operations. By virtue of the legislative power attached to the crown under Henry VIII., Somerset suspended the episcopal authority, and ordered a visitation into every diocese to be held by certain lay and clerical commissioners, who were charged to suppress or modify the ancient ceremonies of the Romish church, and, as far as possible, restore the discipline and worship to the type of the reformed churches. The ministers were, however, forbidden to preach out of their respective parishes. Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, who violently opposed these innovations, was committed to prison on a charge of denying the king's supremacy.

RELIGIOUS REFORMS.—After returning from his Scottish expedition, Somerset called a parliament to repeal certain laws of the last reign, and to complete the work of the reformation which Cranmer and he had begun. The statute of the Six Articles and law of royal proclamations was abolished; private masses were forbidden; communion in both kinds was permitted to the laity; and the power of appointing bishops without the votes of the chapters was conferred upon the king. Lastly, the people were enjoined under severe penalties to acknowledge the religious supremacy of their temporal sovereign, and reject that of the pope. Of his own authority the protector suppressed many practices of the Romish worship, and removed the images and paintings from the churches.

2. CONDITION OF THE POOR.—A curious picture of the age is presented to us by an act passed in this parliament for the suppression of mendicity. All the impotent, maimed, and aged were to have houses provided for them, and be relieved by the willing and charitable dispositions of the parishioners in their respective places of settlement; but the mendicants were treated with a ferocity strongly indicative of the extent of the evil against which this enactment was aimed. Any person found living idly or loiteringly for three days was to be taken before a justice, branded as a vagabond with a hot iron on the breast, and to be handed over for two years as the slave of the informer, who was to give him bread, water, or small drink, along with the refuse of meat, and compel him to work by scourging and chains. If during this period the slave should abscond, and absent himself during fourteen days, he was to

be branded on the forehead or cheek, and adjudged to be a slave to his master for life; and if he ran away a second time, he was to suffer a felon's death. Any person might seize a beggar's children, and retain them as apprentices, until the boys were twenty-four and the girls twenty years of age; and if they ran away, they were to be treated as slaves until the expiration of their term. Savage as such legislation may appear, the object of this act was to mitigate the severities of one which had been passed in the reign of Henry VIII., and which was so cruel that no one would enforce it. There is nothing more worthy of remark in all history than this, that the more we advance in civilisation, the laws become less cruel, but are more effectual.

AGRARIAN INSURRECTIONS.—Two years later, in 1549, this act concurred with other causes to excite a rebellion among the working and poorer classes, whose wages, on account of several causes which diminished the demand for labour, had been reduced. Industry seldom accompanies political or religious excitement, and one cause of distress was the disturbance created in men's minds by the preaching of the new opinions in religion,—fiercely resisted by some, eagerly received by others, and by a third party carried to fanatical extravagance.

The discontent, which was at first directed against the enclosure of the common lands, broke out in different places nearly at the same time, and spread rapidly in all directions until it had extended itself over the greater part of England. In June 1549, nearly 10,000 armed men appeared before Exeter, and in fifteen articles, evidently drawn up under priestly direction, demanded the restoration of the old worship, and a return to the worst days of Henry VIII. Persuasion and reason were in vain employed to restore the rebels to their duty, and the sword was at length vigorously wielded. It has been calculated that not fewer than 4000 of the insurgents fell in this rebellion.

In the counties of Oxford and Buckingham the insurrection was speedily repressed; but in Norfolk it assumed a most formidable aspect. About the first week of July, on the occasion of a rural festival, the people began to throw down hedges and to open enclosures, and many days had not elapsed before 16,000 men from Norfolk and Suffolk were assembled in arms under the command of one Ket, a tanner. This multitude soon became outrageous, spoiling the gentry of

their goods, seizing their persons, and taking them prisoners to their camp. They forced their way into the city of Norwich, and carried off all the ammunition they could find. After several partial successes, the rebels were finally defeated with serious loss, and the ringleaders taken and executed. In Yorkshire a similar rising took place, but it was speedily checked by the apprehension and punishment of the chief insurgents.

3. Somerset's exalted position exposed him to many enemies, among whom was his own brother, Lord Seymour, who endeavoured to displace him. At the same time, John Dudley, earl of Warwick, son of that Dudley who had perished on the scaffold in the early part of the preceding reign, seeing the enmity of the two brothers, and being the perfidious confidant of each, resolved to ruin them both, and exalt himself by their fall. Somerset, acting upon his advice, accused Seymour before the parliament of high-treason: a bill of
 A.D. }
 1549. } attainder was passed against him, and he was executed on Tower Hill.

Parliament, which had nominated a commission of bishops and theologians to remodel the liturgy of the Anglican church, next turned its attention to ecclesiastical matters. The commissioners presented a new form of worship, preserving, however, all of the ancient ritual that did not interfere with the Protestant principles. The new church-service was adopted; and the English Reformation, almost as it now exists, was completed.

Somerset's immense wealth, the haughty manner in which he exercised his great power, and his conduct about the execution of his brother, excited against him feelings of envy and dislike. Warwick, craftily taking advantage of these sentiments, formed a strong party hostile to him in the council. At first the protector felt inclined to crush his enemies by force; but having been deserted by almost all his partisans, he yielded to his ill fortune, and laid down the regency.

Warwick, who now found himself at the head of the government, was from political motives a follower of the reformed religion. As the Roman-catholics were still numerous, and many bishops refused to conform to the religious innovations, it was resolved to eject them. Gardiner, who had been two years in prison, was called upon to sign certain articles, and on his refusal from conscientious scruples, he was brought before a commission over which Archbishop Cranmer pre-

sided. He was deprived of his bishopric, and sentenced to close confinement, many other prelates sharing the same fate. A.D. } Not long after this, the disgraced Somerset was tried, 1552. } condemned, and executed for high-treason.

The destruction of a rival and the title of Duke of Northumberland did not satisfy the ambitious views of Warwick. He aspired to the supreme authority, and the declining health of the king encouraged him in his designs. He began by persuading Edward to change the order of succession; representing that his sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, having been declared illegitimate by parliament, were unworthy of the throne; that Mary Stewart, the Scottish queen, being a foreigner, had no claim to the succession; that after her, the crown naturally fell to the Marchioness of Dorset, eldest daughter of Mary of England, second daughter to Henry VII., and then to Jane Grey, her nearest heir, whose youth, beauty, learning, and virtue, would add splendour to the throne. While the council, by the king's orders, were deliberating on this matter, Warwick having procured for the Marquis of Dorset the title of Duke of Suffolk, proposed a marriage between his fourth son, Guildford Dudley, and the youthful Jane. Unhappily for them, the proposal was accepted; and about a month after the nuptials, the king, overpersuaded by Northumberland's arguments, and supposing himself entitled to exercise the same powers as his father, executed a new entail of the crown, by which the succession was conferred on the Duchess of Suffolk, who had previously transferred her right to her eldest daughter. The will was sealed and attested on the 21st of June, and on the 6th of July Edward breathed his last, in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign (1553).

4. THE REFORMATION.—By successive corruptions, during a long lapse of ages, the doctrine and discipline of the visible church of Christ had become so changed as to be no longer recognisable. From time to time some apostolic voice was heard protesting against the abominations of the papacy; but the day of deliverance was not yet come. At the commencement of the sixteenth century these abuses had reached their crisis, and to a world already prepared by the invention of the printing press and the revival of literature, Luther and his great contemporaries preached the Gospel as it had been delivered by the apostles.

In England, the political origin of the Reformation (especially as regards discipline) gave to the church a peculiar

form. For the headship of the pope was substituted the supremacy of the king; the hierarchy was continued; and all that was not directly condemned by the scriptures was allowed to remain. Had the reign of Henry VIII. been prolonged, it is probable that the few steps which had been taken in advance would have been retraced, and no vestiges of his reforming zeal would have remained except in the confiscated church property. This spoliation tended materially to forward the cause of Protestantism; for those who had been thus enriched, supported generally the new doctrines with all their might, fearing that under Romish sway they would be compelled to surrender their ill-gotten gains. Thus in the reign of the youthful Edward, the conscientious reformers were upheld by men high in power and authority, who saw in the spread and establishment of the truth the best guarantee for the security of their recent acquisitions.

In England the rise of the Reformation was very gradual. This country had never been thoroughly Romish, and the preaching of Wickliffe had sunk deep into the hearts of the people. Severe laws against heresy for a while checked the spread of a purer doctrine, until Henry VIII. found that it could be made serviceable to his impure purposes. The first steps of the reformers, or probably of Cranmer only, were to circulate a translation of Erasmus's *Paraphrase of the New Testament*, and to prepare a set of *Twelve Homilies* to be read in the churches. In these, justification by faith only is made a leading principle, and certain Roman superstitions are forbidden. In 1548 was published Cranmer's *Catechism*, in which three sacraments—baptism, absolution, and the Lord's supper—are still insisted on, and the Ten Commandments are arranged according to Roman-catholic usage. This catechism is of German origin: that which was afterwards inserted in the Prayer-book is purely English. In the same year the *Office of the Communion* was published, and reissued in 1552 after a careful revision by Martyr and Bucer. These prayers are in very many cases merely translations from liturgies of more ancient date. At the end of 1548 the *Book of Common Prayer* was drawn up, and in 1549 ordered to supersede every other form. Besides providing these forms of devotion, which served at the same time to fix the faith of believers, another collection of prayers was issued under the title of *The Primer*. One important work still remained—the drawing up of the articles which should declare the doctrines of the English

church and secure uniformity among its teachers. These, which were forty-two in number, and which did not differ materially from the present thirty-nine, were composed in a very liberal spirit, "for the *avoiding of controversy* in opinions and the establishment of a *godly concord* in certain matters of religion,"—the differences between the various reformed churches being deemed of far less importance than the errors of Romanism. With the liturgy, the articles, and, above all, the Bible, the protestants of England were prepared for the fiery ordeal awaiting them in the next reign.

Mary, A. D. 1553—1558.

5. During two days Northumberland concealed Edward's death, and two days more elapsed before it became generally known by the proclamation of Lady Jane Grey, who had unwillingly accepted the fatal honour. The people greeted her accession with a mournful silence, which of itself condemned the usurpation. Meanwhile MARY, who had retired into Suffolk, collected a numerous army, against which Northumberland could bring but few troops, who soon deserted him. When he was arrested, he fell on his knees and begged his life; but Mary sacrificed him to her security and revenge, and the people, who hated him, gladly witnessed his execution. Guildford and Lady Jane were confined in the Tower: they had been included in Northumberland's sentence; but, either from pity or policy, Mary spared their lives for a time.

ROMISH WORSHIP RESTORED.—Mary was hardly seated on the throne before she broke her solemn pledge to make no change in the religion or laws of Edward, and began to restore the Romish worship. She commenced by releasing Gardiner and the other prelates from their confinement, and restoring them to their former sees. But her zeal did not stop here: Ridley and Cranmer were sent to the Tower, and the other protestant bishops were expelled from the House of Lords and deprived of their sees. Cranmer, who was doubly odious to Mary as the author of her mother's divorce and of the establishment of the Reformation, was accused of having supported Lady Jane's party. He was acquitted of the treason, but reconveyed to the Tower on the more serious charge of heresy, for which he suffered at the stake three years after.

Parliament repealed all the laws of Edward VI. that were favourable to the Reformation, and things were restored to the same state as at the death of Henry VIII., Mary still

preserving the title of supreme head of the church. But she only retained this power as a sacred deposit, until she could restore it to the pope. To make sure of accomplishing a design so contrary to the wishes of her subjects, she looked to her mother's family for support, and privately negotiated her marriage with Philip II., son of the Emperor Charles V. The secret, however, was so badly kept that it became known to the parliament, which, although entirely papistical, drew up a remonstrance against a match which they feared would be prejudicial to the liberties of England.

6. **THE QUEEN'S MARRIAGE.**—Early in 1554, the treaty of marriage was concluded on terms apparently advantageous to the English. But the people were not to be deceived; Sir Peter Carew took up arms in Devonshire, resolute to oppose the coming of the Prince of Spain; and Sir Thomas Wyatt had taken the field with the same determination in Kent. The former was easily suppressed; but the Kentish insurrection very nearly proved fatal to Mary's crown. As on former occasions, the severest punishment was inflicted on hundreds of the insurgents. The Duke of Suffolk had mingled in these risings, and Mary availed herself of this pretence to order the execution of his daughter, Lady Jane Grey. This unhappy victim of state policy died with a firmness superior to her age and sex; she was barely seventeen years old. Her husband preceded and her father followed her to the scaffold. This unnecessary severity alienated the affections of many loyal subjects, and Philip's arrival was ill calculated to restore them. His coldness, his haughty reserve, and the Spanish formalities which he introduced into the court, displeased every one save the queen. Her tender jealousy was charmed by these barriers of disposition and etiquette, which, by separating her husband from her people, would leave him entirely to herself.

RECONCILIATION WITH ROME.—The great project she was meditating, and which had been the chief cause of her marriage, was now made known. The two houses of parliament, repealing all the laws enacted against the Roman-catholics, desired to return into the bosom of the papal church; and, in the name of the sovereign pontiff, Cardinal Pole, who had been sent to Italy to bring about a reconciliation with the holy see, removed all the censures that had been issued against them, and granted them absolution. A worldly interest, however, prevailed in both these bodies; the nobility

had submitted to the court of Rome only under a promise that they should never be deprived of the ecclesiastical property that had been conferred upon them. In the statute abrogating all the laws that infringed upon the papal authority, a clause was inserted to the effect that the possessors of church property should be protected against every claim of restoration.

7. BISHOP GARDINER.—Two prelates, Pole and Gardiner, possessed Mary's confidence. The former recommended indulgence towards the partisans of the Reformation: the latter advocated the severest measures. Gardiner had not always been inflexible in matters of doctrine. Under Henry VIII. he had been one of the principal agents of the famous divorce, one of the greatest promoters of the schism, and also one of the most zealous apologists of the royal supremacy. Under Edward VI. he had energetically resisted the novelties introduced by Cranmer; yet he had seemed favourably disposed to certain changes, approving of the communion in both kinds, and consenting to the suppression of the monastic communities. His variations were such as to gain for him the titles of a *protestant catholic* and a *catholic protestant*. In Mary's reign he professed himself a fervent Romanist. Under his management, parliament had been induced to re-establish popery, and to ratify the queen's marriage,—two matters very repugnant to the feelings of the nation. Such services as these naturally gave Gardiner overwhelming influence in the queen's councils, and the Romish church, formerly persecuted, now became the persecutor. This gave additional force to the new opinions, by fanning the zeal of the reformers, and at the same time rendered the sovereign odious to her subjects.

The various statutes against the heretics were revived in January 1555, the notorious Bonner, bishop of London, celebrating the event by a solemn procession through the city. The first victim was John Rogers, a prebendary of St Paul's, and the night after his martyrdom, Hooper, bishop of Gloucester, was transferred to his own diocese, and there burnt in a slow fire. Ferrar, bishop of St David's, was put to death with the same refinement of cruelty, and Dr Taylor suffered a like fate at Hadleigh in Suffolk. Ridley and Latimer, ^{16th Oct. 1555.} after a suspense of nearly eighteen months, were led to the stake at Oxford, and five months later, Cranmer, a man of less decided temper, atoned for his vacillation by the heroism of his martyrdom. These were the most

illustrious victims, and of them it may be truly said that the blood of the martyrs was the seed of the church; for their example, instead of crushing Protestantism, gave it fresh vigour, and that faith which at the commencement of Mary's reign was professed by a small section only of the people, became the very life's blood of the nation before its close. Many, foreseeing the coming storm, had fled to the continent, among whom were Grindal, successively bishop of London, archbishop of York, and then of Canterbury; the learned Jewel; Coverdale, the translator of the Bible; Fox, the martyrologist; John Knox, the great Scottish reformer,—in all not fewer than 800, who resided principally at Frankfort and Geneva.

The inutility of all her exertions to check the spread of the reformed faith filled Mary with the deepest vexation, which was still further augmented by the departure of her husband.

A. D. } Philip, who despaired of conciliating the affections of
1556. } the English, returned to the continent, whither he was summoned by his father, Charles V. With the exception of a brief visit in 1557, he never saw his wife again. War was at this time raging between France and Spain; yet the indifference of her husband, whose sole passion seemed to be ambition, did not prevent Mary from taking part in the quarrel. Her troops contributed to the victory of
A. D. }
1557. } Saint Quentin, a success more than effaced by the loss of Calais in the following year. This was a severe blow to the national pride, and the queen's vexation is recorded in the expression, that if her breast were opened after her death, the word *Calais* would be found engraved on her heart.

The murmurs of the people, the progress of heresy (as Protestantism was termed), the disdain of Philip, and the disasters of the war, preyed upon Queen Mary's health, which gave way at last under so many violent attacks. She died of a fever on the 17th November 1558, in the forty-fourth year of her age and the sixth of her reign. She had no children, and her last moments were embittered by the thought that her throne would descend to a heretic sister, for whom she felt but little affection.

PERSECUTION.—Owing to the naturally frank and generous spirit of the people, less blood was shed in England during this age of persecution than in other countries. About 290 persons, it has been computed, were put to death on account of religion; while in the Netherlands alone, according to

Father Paul, 50,000 were hanged, burnt, buried alive, or beheaded for heresy ; in Germany, the reformers perished by hundreds in battle, in the flames, or on the scaffold ; and in France, previous to the St Bartholomew massacre, the number of victims was counted by thousands.

Queen Mary's care for the orthodoxy of her subjects did not improve their morality. Capital crimes were greatly multiplied ; fifty-two persons were executed at Oxford at one assize ; loathsome offences reappeared ; travelling was insecure, even men of rank becoming highway robbers. Famine and pestilence ravaged the country in 1557, and the people were restless and uneasy during the entire period of this reign.

EXERCISES.

1. Give the reasons why the injunctions of Henry VIII. in his will as to his succession were not likely to be fulfilled. How did the executors act ? Who was the Duke of Somerset, and what office did he hold ? What did he do in ecclesiastical matters ?

2. State the chief provisions of the act for the suppression of mendicity. What is observable about the effect of civilisation on such laws ? What produced depression among the working classes ? What occasioned the insurrection of 1549 ? Describe the proceedings of the insurgents from Norfolk and Suffolk.

3. Who was Somerset's chief enemy ? What was the result of his enmity ? How did Warwick supersede Somerset ? What was Somerset's fate ? What were Warwick's projects about the succession to the throne ? How did Edward endeavour to settle the succession ?

4. Why was the Reformation necessary ? What was its origin in England ? How did that strengthen the reformers ? Give an account of the rise of the Reformation in England. How were the protestants prepared for the persecutions of the next reign ?

5. Who was first proclaimed queen on the death of Edward ? How did Queen Mary act in asserting her right to the throne ? What was her conduct in ecclesiastical matters ? How did parliament aid her projects ? Whom did she marry ?

6. How did the country receive Philip of Spain ? What was the fate of Lady Jane Grey ? How did the English people feel towards Philip ? Describe the manner in which Catholicism was restored.

7. Who were the prelates who possessed the queen's confidence ? What was the history of Gardiner ? Mention the chief protestant martyrs of this reign. What town on the continent was lost to England ? What hastened the queen's death ? Was the amount of religious persecution in England great in comparison with what it was in other countries ?

CHAPTER XX.

THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH, A. D. 1558—1603.

Establishment of the Reformed Doctrines—Rise of the Puritans—Maritime Enterprise—Continental Alliances with Protestantism—War in Ireland—Death of the Queen of Scots—The Invincible Armada—Expedition to Spain and Portugal—Irish Rebellion—Earl of Essex—Character of Elizabeth's Reign—Sir Thomas Gresham—Progress of Commerce and Discovery—Literary History.

1. ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REFORMATION.—On the day of her sister's death, Elizabeth was proclaimed amid lively demonstrations of public joy. No attempt was made to dispute her claim: tables were spread in the streets to honour her accession by merry-makings; the bells rang out joyously; bonfires blazed in every direction, and all felt that the English reign of terror was at an end. Although determined on restoring the protestant religion, Elizabeth enjoined the continuance of divine service in the form which was observed at her predecessor's death, and permitted only the prayers to be read in the vernacular tongue. Even at her coronation she was consecrated by a Romish bishop. But a few days after, the parliament repealed all the laws passed during the previous reign in favour of the old belief, and revived most of the acts of Henry VIII. that annulled the supremacy of the pope, as well as the statutes of Edward VI. in favour of the reformed creed. The queen, as supreme governor of the church, was invested with full powers to suppress heresy and regulate the liturgy and discipline of the establishment. All the bishops, with the exception of Llandaff, refused to take the oath of supremacy; but among the inferior clergy there were not more than eighty who objected. A great majority of the lay peers voted for the destruction of what they had approved during the preceding reign. The protestant Church of England was definitively established in 1562 by the publication of the Articles as revised by the bishops and adopted by the Convocation. They were reduced in number from forty-two to thirty-nine by the omission of certain articles on the Lord's supper.

Although Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon an-

his marriage with Anne Boleyn had been ratified by parliament, yet, as the pope considered Elizabeth illegitimate, many zealous Romanists denied her right to the throne, and in their eyes Mary Stewart had a preferable claim. Mary was descended from Henry VII. through her grandmother, Margaret of England, eldest daughter of that prince. Her rights were incontestable, if we admit Elizabeth's disqualification, and that Mary was not excluded as a foreigner. This princess, urged on by her uncles the Guises, had assumed the title of Queen of England; and when the death of Henry II. placed her husband Francis II. on the French throne, Elizabeth might have had good reason to fear her pretensions, had not the condition of France, and more particularly of Scotland, removed all cause of anxiety.

The Queen of England now turned her attention to the internal administration of her government, in which she was greatly aided by the wisdom of Lord Burleigh, Walsingham, and Nicholas Bacon. Many aspirants to her hand made their appearance, and among them Philip II. of Spain; but she evaded rather than rejected all her suitors. Their homage flattered her vanity; her policy encouraged their hopes.

THE PURITANS.—Although Elizabeth adopted the protestant form of worship, she did not close her eyes to the dangers with which the reforming zeal of that period threatened the royal authority. The Marian exiles on their return from the continent had brought with them inclinations in favour of a wider departure from the Romish worship than the queen would consent to, and their avowed object was soon declared to be the substitution of the Calvinistic or Geneva system for the established forms of worship and discipline. At first the puritans complied with the required forms, and accepted livings in the establishment, their deviations from the ritual being overlooked, until Archbishop Parker summoned the clergy of several dioceses before him, and suspended all who refused to subscribe an agreement to submit to the queen's injunctions in regard to the habits, rites, and ceremonies. Great numbers of clergymen, eminent for their zeal, learning, and piety, were ejected from their cures and thrown destitute upon the world, and in 1566, feeling that all chance of reconciliation was at an end, they separated from the establishment, and met in private houses to worship God according to the light of their consciences.

Elizabeth, who considered the church as merely the creature

and instrument of the state, imagined, and not without some appearance of reason, that the puritans were desirous of effecting a political revolution, and were eager to apply to civil society the maxims of their ecclesiastical government. They taught that the church of Christ ought to be separate from and independent of the state,—a doctrine that immediately subverted the queen's supremacy. To prevent their attaining what she considered a dangerous superiority, she skilfully arrayed the Roman-catholics against them, and checked the inconsiderate zeal of some reformers who, in their hostility against Romanism, would have defaced the epitaphs and inscriptions on the tombs, and destroyed the ancient manuscripts that had escaped at the suppression of the monasteries. In 1567, a number of puritans were committed to prison; but in the House of Commons the strength of the party enabled them successfully to oppose the violent stretches of the royal prerogative. Religious enthusiasm cured the base servility of parliament. At the same time, however, the court of the Star-chamber and the High Commission became a protestant inquisition, and the greatest harshness, even to imprisonment for life, was shown towards the unfortunate puritan ministers and their congregations.

Elizabeth, suspecting that a plot was on foot in France to drive her from the throne in favour of Mary Stewart, resolved to ally herself with the protestant powers of the continent. The Huguenots were at that time in arms, and with these she concluded a compact, they offering immediate possession of the town of Havre, and supplying money and 3000 men. Havre could not, however, be maintained, and the first continental war in this reign ended in a very discouraging manner (1562).

2. The events connected with the romantic history of Mary queen of Scots had considerable connexion with the affairs of England during the reign of Elizabeth, but they had still greater influence on the destinies of Scotland, and it will be better to postpone an account of them until the next chapter. In 1569, a rebellion of the northern counties took place, avowedly with the design of liberating Mary when she was a captive in England. For the same object, the Babington conspiracy was concocted (1586). It was to encourage such attempts as these that Pius V., in 1570, excommunicated Elizabeth, and absolved her subjects from their allegiance.

MARITIME ENTERPRISES.—While the career of this unfortunate princess was approaching its tragical end, the nation

indulged in that taste for discovery and adventure which characterized the sixteenth century, and which proved the forerunner of a great revolution in the arts and sciences, in state policy, in international relations, and in manners and customs. England did not remain an idle spectator of the maritime enterprises of the Spaniards, the Portuguese, and the Hollanders. The first expeditions of the foreign seamen were made solely for profit, and in their prosecution every law of justice and humanity was trampled under foot. These daring voyagers committed the most frightful excesses, and though we may extol their courage, we cannot but detest their avarice and cruelty, and the long catalogue of crimes with which they deluged the New World.

Sir Francis Drake, one of the captains who, under the command of Sir John Hawkins, had ravaged the coast of Africa, was commissioned to cruise in the Indian seas. He seized and plundered more than a hundred merchant vessels, pillaged the city of Nombre de Dios, and captured a convoy of mules laden with gold and silver. A portion of the money obtained in this expedition was expended on fitting out a fleet for the exploration of the Pacific. Drake set sail with five small ships, whose collective crews amounted to no more than 160 men. With these he crossed the Atlantic, passed through the Straits of Magellan, and devastated all the Peruvian shore, then stretching across the Pacific, he doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and, after an absence of three years, returned to Plymouth with one ship only, but which contained treasures to the amount of £800,000. Thus to Drake belongs the glory of having been the first English commander who circumnavigated the globe. Elizabeth was so pleased with the results of Drake's expedition, that she dined on board of his ship at Dartmouth, and conferred on him the honours of knighthood.

France and Spain had always cast a longing eye on Ireland, which had never been tranquil since the conquest; but now religious differences were a still more fertile source of distraction. At one time the native Irish devastated the English pale with fire and sword; and at another they were the victims of an exterminating war. After the murder of Shane O'Neil, A. D. 1568. his lands in Ulster were vested in the English crown, and the colonists who were sent over to occupy them had to maintain their holdings by the sword. The inhabitants naturally looked to the popish powers of the continent for sup-

A. D. } port, and Gregory XIII. sent them 600 disciplined
1572. } soldiers with 3000 stand of arms. The capture and death of the Earl of Desmond in 1583 was followed by a period of tranquillity and peace.

3. THE ARMADA.—A formidable armament had long been preparing in the Spanish harbours to avenge the unhappy Mary and to crush the protestant religion in England; but before the fleet was ready for sea, Drake with a strong squadron burned a number of Spanish vessels in sight of Cadiz and Lisbon, intercepted the treasure-ships that were returning from America, and arrived in England with an immense booty. At the same time Walsingham, by an able financial operation, deprived Philip II. of the resources he was in the habit of drawing from the bankers of Genoa. These circumstances delayed the union and the sailing of the *invincible fleet*, for such was the title conferred beforehand on the formidable armament that threatened England with destruction. Elizabeth took every measure calculated to secure her kingdom: a hundred thousand men were raised, and stationed at those points where a landing was likely to be attempted. She appeared on horseback in the midst of the troops encamped round Tilbury Fort, exhorting the soldiers to defend their country and their religion. “I am come amongst you,” she said, “resolved in the midst and heat of the battle to live or die amongst you all—to lay down for my God, for my kingdom, and for my people, my honour and my blood, even in the dust. I know that I have the body of a weak and feeble woman; but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too.”

By this language, and her heroic behaviour, she inspired her subjects with courage. She had only thirty-four ships of war, of a much smaller size than those of Spain; but the nobility and the principal towns disputed the honour of furnishing others, and a numerous fleet was soon at her disposal. The main body assembled at Plymouth under the orders of Lord Howard of Effingham, among whose inferior officers were Drake, Winter, Hawkins, and Frobisher. The Scots, headed by their king, armed in defence of the two kingdoms, and formed an association by which they bound themselves to maintain their religion and government against all enemies, both foreign and domestic. Such was the origin of the famous *covenant* (1588) which eventually proved so fatal to Charles I.

The *invincible armada* consisted of 130 ships of various sizes, and carried an army of 20,000 men, besides 8000 sailors and

2400 guns, with provisions for six months. It was decided in the Spanish councils that the expedition should proceed to the straits of Dover, where it should effect a junction with the Duke of Parma, who had assembled in the neighbourhood of Dunkirk an army of nearly 40,000 men with a sufficient number of transports. The combined armament was then to sail up the Thames, take London by surprise or assault, and, with the help of the discontented Roman-catholics, place England under the dominion of Philip.

Just as the fleet was on the point of sailing, it was detained by the death of the Admiral Santa Cruz, and of the Duke of Paliano, the vice-admiral. The loss of these two experienced officers, the consequent delay, and particularly the choice of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, who had no experience as a seaman, were no favourable auguries for the success of the enterprise. On the 20th of May 1588, the armada sailed from Lisbon: the next day it encountered a violent storm, which sank some of the smaller vessels, and compelled the others to enter Corunna to repair the damage they had sustained. It again put to sea, and reached the Channel at the end of July. Instead of taking advantage of a southerly wind to fall upon the English fleet lying before Plymouth, the Duke of Medina strictly following his instructions, continued his course towards Flanders, where the Dutch had blockaded Dunkirk and Newport. The English ships, which were lighter and manned by more skilful sailors, followed the Spaniards, hovered on their flanks and rear, and attacked every vessel that was separated from the main body. Five combats in succession ended to the advantage of the combined English and Dutch fleets, and Medina was unable to effect a junction with the Prince of Parma. He was even meditating a return to Spain, when another tempest arose; and while the English took shelter in their ports, the Spanish fleet was dispersed by the winds, and wrecked on the coasts of Denmark, Norway, Scotland, and even Ireland. More than eighty vessels were thus lost, and the shattered relics of the formidable armament with difficulty reached the port of Santander in the Bay of Biscay about the end of September. When Philip was informed of this terrible catastrophe, he pretended to be unmoved, and observed coldly: "God's will be done! I sent my fleet to fight against England, and not against the elements." But the misfortune was greater than he was willing to believe. The destruction of the armada, which had been equipped at an enormous expense, and whose

loss cost Philip ten thousand of his best troops and the greater part of his marine, inflicted a mortal blow on Spain. From that time, her power insensibly declined, and she ceased to be an object of alarm to the nations of Europe.

4. PORTUGUESE EXPEDITION.—Emboldened by the destruction of the Spanish armada, the English in the following year began to think of revenge, and parliament besought the queen to punish the insult which had been offered by Philip, and carry the war into his dominions. An armament of 200 sail was accordingly collected at Plymouth, and took on board a refugee named Don Antonio, a claimant of the crown of Portugal, which had been seized by Philip. The expedition was placed under the command of Norris and Drake, who sailed directly to the harbour of Corunna and captured several ships, but were repulsed from the town with the loss of many valuable lives. The fleet then sailed to the mouth of the Tagus, and the troops marched without opposition to Lisbon. But not a voice was raised for Don Antonio, and the English were at length compelled by want and sickness to abandon the enterprise. Of 21,000 men engaged in this disastrous expedition, one-half had perished: yet an attempt was made to conceal the loss, and to magnify the defeat into another triumph over the power of Spain.

After these events, Elizabeth reigned in comparative tranquillity. Since the death of Mary Stewart, the English catholics had concealed their discontent, and seemed to acknowledge their cause as hopeless. James VI. of Scotland was prevented by the factions in his own country from disturbing England, and his policy lay in maintaining a good understanding between the two kingdoms. In these favourable circumstances, Elizabeth sent assistance to the protestants of France and Holland. When in 1593 Henry IV. announced his intention of conforming to the ancient worship, she appeared inclined to quarrel with this prince, and bitterly reproached him for his change of creed; but she was gradually reconciled, and did not eventually desert her old ally.

In 1594, a discovery was made of two conspiracies by the Spaniards against the life of the queen. She retaliated by new exertions in favour of the Dutch and the King of France, by ravaging the Spanish colonies, and by an expedition against Spain itself. In 1596, she equipped a fleet of 150 ships, under the command of Lord Effingham, who sailed to Cadiz, and having defeated a Spanish fleet that lay in the roads, took the

city by assault. An immense booty fell into the hands of the victors, and it was estimated that the total loss sustained by the Spaniards on this occasion amounted to 20,000,000 of ducats.

5. IRISH REBELLION.—In the following year, Henry IV. signed the treaty of Vervins with Philip II., by which he recovered possession of Calais and the other places he had lost during the war. Several of Elizabeth's ministers advised her to imitate the French monarch's example; but as she was interested in defending the new republic of the Seven Provinces, and had little fear of the power of Spain, she preferred an honourable war to the advantages of a peace that might have proved ruinous to Holland. Philip took his revenge by exciting the catholics of Ireland to insurrection. The leader of the rebels was Hugh O'Neal, earl of Tyrone, under whose guidance the Irish waged a desultory war among their woods, hills, and marshes, before venturing to meet the English in the open field. Sir John Norris was unable to make any impression upon them, and died of grief and vexation. Sir Henry Bagnall was defeated in a pitched battle at Blackwater, where he lost 1500 men, his artillery, ammunition, and life. After this success Tyrone was proclaimed the saviour of his country, and the natives crowded around his standard, in the hope of being able to expel the English. The Earl of Essex was sent against them with an army of 20,000 men; but being impeded in his operations by the machinations of his enemies at home, he left his command without authority, and was in consequence deprived of his offices, and condemned to be imprisoned during the queen's pleasure. He was shortly afterwards set at liberty; but, blinded by resentment, he endeavoured to revenge himself upon the authors of his disgrace by rising in open rebellion. All his plans, however, failed, and he lost his head upon the scaffold (1601).

Mountjoy, the successor to Essex, had a difficult task to perform: a Spanish auxiliary force had landed at Kinsale, and inspired fresh courage into the insurgents. But the lord deputy acted with vigour and decision. He blockaded the Spaniards, defeated an attempt of the Earl of Tyrone to raise the siege, and finally compelled the foreign garrison to capitulate. This failure and a terrible famine brought the rebels to extremities, and Tyrone, in 1602, surrendered on a promise that his life should be spared. Although Mountjoy had thus successfully terminated the contest in Ireland, Elizabeth re-

mained a prey to the deepest affliction. After the death of Essex, to whom she is said to have been tenderly attached, she became gloomy and thoughtful, and fond of solitude. Fatigued with the grandeur of her station, disgusted with life, and yet afraid of death, she expired on the 24th March 1603, in the seventieth year of her age and the forty-fifth of her reign.

6. Elizabeth was one of the greatest monarchs that ever sat on the English throne. Under her reign, which was internally both peaceful and brilliant, the people were contented, the parliament docile, the puritans kept within bounds, order restored in the finances, the debts of the two preceding reigns paid off without increasing the taxes, and the prosperity of the kingdom secured by good government. Agriculture flourished, and the condition of the serfs was meliorated by
 A.D. } wise laws. Opportunities were given of redeeming
 1574 } themselves from their state of bondage; and, without infringing on the rights of property, steps were taken for accomplishing their total emancipation by measures at once gradual and mild. The poor-law in some degree corrected the inequality of fortunes, and guaranteed public tranquillity. It was used for the purpose of giving subsistence to the able-bodied only in return for labour, and was not subjected to the abuses which afterwards made it a boon on idleness and improvidence.

.TRADE AND COMMERCE.—Before Elizabeth's reign, when the English monarchs needed money, they were accustomed to apply to the merchants of Antwerp, who exacted enormous interest. A noble hearted and patriotic merchant of London, Sir Thomas Gresham, the founder of the Royal Exchange, established an English company for lending money to the government. The loans were punctually repaid; Elizabeth's credit was established in the kingdom, and she shook off the state of dependence in which her predecessors had been held by foreigners. A multitude of Flemish workmen, who fled from the tyranny of Spain, found a refuge in England, by whose means its woollen manufactures rapidly increased, and what was formerly imported from Flanders was now made at home. At the same time the foreign commerce was greatly extended. The risk incurred in transporting merchandise from one country to another was less formidable, owing to the ingenious invention of insurance. The communications with Russia, opened up in the preceding reign, became easier and more

frequent after 1569. The Czar Ivan Basilovitz granted the English an exclusive privilege of trading with his states. They established factories at Kolmogorod, Novgorod, Vologda, and Moscow, and extended their commerce by the Caspian Sea as far as Persia and Bokhara. In 1583, English merchants founded establishments in Turkey, where England had hitherto been considered a province of France. The merchants of the Hanse Towns had formed a company that had gradually usurped the commerce of the British islands to such a degree that in 1552 it exported 44,000 pieces of cloth, while the merchants of England had not sent abroad more than eleven hundred. Elizabeth put an end to this monopoly, and restored to her subjects that commerce of which these foreigners had deprived them. The English also now learned to build in their own harbours those trading vessels which they had hitherto bought from the merchants of Lubeck, Hamburg, Genoa, and Venice; and so considerable was the increase of the national marine under this great sovereign, that she fairly earned the title of *Queen of the Northern Seas*. Discoveries also were attempted in distant parts of the world. Hawkins visited the Guinea coast in 1562, and America in 1564; Frobisher made three voyages in search of the still undiscovered north-west passage; Drake and Cavendish cir-
 A.D. } cumnavigated the globe; Davis discovered the great
 1586. } straits which bear his name; in 1578, Gilbert endeavoured to settle a colony in Newfoundland; and Raleigh to establish another in Virginia. These were unsuccessful efforts, but are of value to the historian as attesting the emulation of the people in every kind of useful enterprise.

7. In 1600, Elizabeth gave the first letters patent to the East India Company. The use of coaches was introduced into England about 1580 by the Earl of Arundel; and about the same year, the establishment of posts first received a regular form.

LITERATURE.—During the early part of the sixteenth century, English literature was in its infancy, and could boast
 A.D. } of only two distinguished poets, Sir Thomas Wyatt,
 1503-1542. } who wrote sonnets in imitation of Petrarch, but who was more successful in satire, and the young and unfortunate Surrey. These two individuals were of great service to the English language, by softening its asperity, and adapting it to an elegant and polished style; but it did not attain perfection until the following reign. Under Elizabeth flour-

A. D. } 1554-1586. } Ished Sir Philip Sidney, author of the *Arcadia*, the most accomplished gentleman of the age, not less skilled in languages and science than in military affairs, and who died at an early age on the field of battle;—

A. D. } 1562-1618. } Raleigh, a man of strong and lively imagination, of ardent and universal genius, a politician and historian, poet and seaman, as intrepid before the axe of the executioner as in the perils of war;—Dorset, whom state cares could not estrange from the society of the muses, and who in 1561 procured the representation of *Gorboduc*, one of the first dramas in verse that had ever been given on the English stage;—

A. D. } 1562-1612. } Daniel, distinguished as the author of a poem on the *Wars of the Two Roses*, but particularly as an historian;—Southwell, whose poems are at once noble and elegant;—John Davies, whose poem on the *Immortality of the Soul* served as a model for Pope's *Essay on Man*;—Drayton, a fertile, though now half-forgotten writer on elegiac, historical, and religious subjects; Spenser, whose poem of the *Fairy Queen* places him at the head of our epic writers;—and above all, the “myriad-minded,” the “honey-tongued” Shakspeare, with Gascoigne and Marlowe, his predecessors by a few years, and Beaumont and Fletcher, Jonson and Massinger, his rivals and contemporaries.

In this manner does the reign of the “good Queen Bess” throw a lustre on the page of British history, and so long as our annals survive, it will be indicated as the starting point of all our greatness in commerce, politics, and literature.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the conduct of Elizabeth to the religious parties at the commencement of her reign? What laws were repealed and what revived? How was Protestantism definitely established? What was the nature of the claim of Mary, queen of Scots to the English throne? Give an account of the Puritans? How did Elizabeth attempt to check their zeal?
2. What was the object of the rebellion in the northern counties? What pursuit characterized the sixteenth century? How did England partake in it? Describe the feats of Sir Francis Drake? What was the state of Ireland at this period?
3. What was the object with which the Spanish armada was fitted out? What measures did Elizabeth take? How was she aided by the country? Who were the principal officers in the English force? What accidents operated in their favour and against the Spaniards? Describe the fate of the armada.
4. What expedition was attempted after the defeat of the armada? What did it accomplish? What was the state of the country when the warlike operations were at an end? What states received succour from the British government?

5. What aspect did the dispute with Spain assume? What occurred in Ireland? What was the fate of Essex? Describe the conduct of Mountjoy. When and under what circumstances did Queen Elizabeth die?

6. What was the general character of her reign? Mention some of its beneficial acts. What did Sir Thomas Gresham become celebrated for? What progress did trade and commerce make? What voyages and discoveries were made?

7. What were the literary performances of Wyatt and Surrey? Who was Sir Philip Sidney? Mention some of the principal literary ornaments of this reign, with the names of their works. Who was at their head?

CHAPTER XXI.

SCOTLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF MARY TO THE UNION OF THE CROWNS, A. D. 1542—1603.

The Regency—Martyrdom of Wishart—Battle of Pinkey—The Queen dowager—The Reformation—Mary's Return to Scotland—Darnley—Rizzio—Bothwell—Mary seeks Refuge in England—Northern Insurrection—Assassination of Earl Murray—Execution of Queen Mary—James VI.—The Gowry Conspiracy.

1. THE REGENCY.—Mary, queen of Scots, was just a week old when her reign commenced, and she was nominally a queen. It naturally happened that the office of governor would fall to the person who had most influence and power in the country. Mary of Guise, the mother of the queen, struggled for the possession of it, and she was aided by the celebrated Cardinal Beaton, the chief champion of the Roman-catholics. The Earl of Arran, the nearest male relation of the infant queen, also claimed the right of being governor of the kingdom, and was successful.

With the view of uniting Great Britain under one crown, Henry, on the news of his nephew's death, determined to marry his son Edward to the infant Mary. Many of the Scotch nobles, among the foremost of whom were the Earls of Angus, Cassillis, and Glencairn, readily seconded his views, even to the sacrifice of the national independence. Arran, the heir-presumptive to the throne, not only succeeded in depriving Cardinal Beaton of the regency, but actually shut him up in Blackness Castle. The clergy, feeling convinced that by his talent and energy alone could their ruin be warded off, closed their churches, and refused to administer the sacraments or bury the dead.

But Henry's plans, however skilfully laid by his own agents or abetted by a numerous party in Scotland, failed of success. The English monarch overreached himself, and his provocations were the means of bringing about a reconciliation between the Earl of Arran and Beaton. Not long after, the earl abjured Protestantism, and returned into the bosom of the Romish church ; while Lennox, who had been set up as Arran's rival, joined the English interests. Plots and intrigues rapidly followed each other, until a sudden attack was made upon the } town of Leith by the Earl of Hertford. The city of } Edinburgh was plundered and set on fire, and all the open country round that capital burnt or destroyed. On quitting Leith, at the approach of Arran and Beaton, the English forces burnt every town, village, and even cottage, along the seashore between Edinburgh and Berwick. Other incursions across the borders were marked by the most savage fury, and in one of these the beautiful abbeys of Melrose, Kelso, and Dryburgh were partly demolished. Nothing was left undone to convert the districts south of the Forth into one wide desert.

WISHART'S MARTYRDOM.—The persons who had assisted Henry the Eighth's projects in Scotland still followed their treacherous practices, and advised him to attempt another invasion. Some individuals even promised to murder Beaton if Henry would give them a sufficient reward. At length the barbarous execution of George Wishart, who was burned at St Andrews for heresy, seemed to favour their designs, by inspiring a number of his adherents with a determination to avenge his death. Early on the morning of the 29th of May 1546, Norman Leslie, eldest son of the Earl of Rothes, with sixteen associates, succeeded in entering the cardinal's castle, and having turned out the workmen and servants, they shut the gates, and proceeded deliberately to execute their purpose. The object of their vengeance had barricaded the door of his apartment, but an entrance was soon effected, when two of the assassins rushed upon him with drawn swords and inflicted several wounds. James Melville, however, one of their number, checked their impetuosity, declaring that the judgment of God ought to be executed with all gravity. He then presented the point of his sword to the bleeding victim, and calling upon him to repent of his evil courses, and especially of the death of the holy Wishart, passed the weapon repeatedly through the body of the prelate, who sank down at his feet and expired.

The conspirators took possession of the castle of St Andrews, and retained it throughout a protracted siege, during which they were joined by John Knox, who in vain raised his voice against their wild revelry and horrible immoralities. The castle was not reduced till the aid of French engineers was obtained, and the garrison were taken prisoners and conveyed to France. It thus happened, that Knox, so conspicuous in A. D. } the history of the Reformation in Scotland, was for some
1547. } time a captive along with common criminals in the French galleys.

2. BATTLE OF PINKEY.—After the death of Henry VIII., the protector Somerset still determined to pursue his plan of forcing a marriage between the young Prince Edward and the still younger Queen of the Scots, and prepared a great army, 2d Sept. } with which he crossed the border. In the castle of St
1547. } Andrews there had been found a document in which many of the Scottish nobles had bound themselves to support the English government,—a disunion which naturally occasioned great anxiety to the regent. He adopted an ancient method of gathering the people, by sending “the fiery cross” through the country. This mysterious symbol of haste and danger was formed of yew, first set on fire, and then quenched in the blood of a goat. Every man who received it was bound to pass on with it through torrents or over mountains, by day or night, until another took it off his hands. An army was thus collected at Musselburgh, six miles east of Edinburgh, near which position they were defeated by Somerset, in the 10th Sep. } bloody battle of Pinky, where it is said that 15,000
1547. } Scotsmen perished. Had Somerset pursued this victory, and advanced into Scotland, it is hard to say how dearly that country would again have had to buy its independence; but the news of plots forming against him induced him to return to England.

In the first Scottish parliament held under Arran’s regency, an act was passed allowing the people to read the Scriptures in their native tongue. The assassination of Cardinal Beaton, much as it is to be reprobated, was thought at that time to favour the progress of the reformed doctrines; and under the new primate Hamilton an attempt was made to improve the manners of the ecclesiastics, whose corruption, immorality, and ignorance were set forth as the prime causes of the prevailing heresies.

3. In 1554. the queen-dowager, Mary of Guise, assumed

the title of regent, under the guidance of an able Frenchman named d'Oisel. Her administration was generally beneficial, and would have been more so had she not consulted too much the interests of France. She endeavoured to involve the Scotch in hostilities with England, but, save the usual border forays, peace was not interrupted. In 1558, by her management, Mary, queen of Scots, then in her sixteenth year, was married to Francis, the dauphin or heir to the crown of France.

The claims of Mary Stewart to the English throne were, by the canon law, considered preferable to those of Elizabeth,—a sentence of the church having declared Henry's marriage with Anne Boleyn null and void. In an evil hour Mary and her husband quartered the arms of England with their own, and even assumed the titles of King and Queen of Scotland and England. In 1559, Francis II. succeeded to the throne of his father Henry II.,—an event which the Scots began to regard as fatal to the independence of their country. To support the regent and re-establish their own power, Francis and Mary sent over 1000 French soldiers, who were quartered at Leith, and a number of learned Romanist divines.

The foundations of the reformed church had been watered with the blood of her martyrs; but the return of John Knox from Geneva in 1559 utterly ruined the cause of popery in Scotland. Roused by the eloquence of this apostle of reform, the people attacked the churches and monasteries, overturned the altars, defaced the pictures, and levelled many of the buildings with the ground. The armed lords of the congregation, took possession of Edinburgh on the 29th of June, and on the 1st of August 1560 abolished the papal jurisdiction and authority, annulled all the statutes for the maintenance of the old religion, and confiscated all the church property. The form of ecclesiastical government now adopted, embraced the principles laid down by Knox in his "First Book of Discipline," and was framed chiefly upon the presbyterian model of Geneva. Severe punishments were threatened against those who continued to say or attend mass. Meanwhile the reformed preachers inculcated the lawfulness of resistance to the constituted authorities, and the lords of the congregation applied for assistance to Queen Elizabeth. In despite of her repugnance to what was deemed Knox's anarchical polity, she listened to Cecil's reasoning, that her own safety and the liberty and religion of England depended on the course of affairs in Scotland, and resolved to give her secret support to

the protestant nobility. Sir Ralph Sadler, an old and wily diplomatist, was her agent in these discreditable transactions. The treacherous intrigues that followed this arrangement present to us a very odious picture of the leaders of the Scottish party. Queen Mary's share in them was that of a passive, inexperienced instrument, while Elizabeth was the mainspring of all the plots carried on by her ministers.

At length the lords of the congregation, after suppressing the abbeys of Paisley, Kilwinning, and Dunfermline, took the field, and marched upon Edinburgh, where they summoned a parliament. The queen-regent and the Romish party withdrew to Leith; but within a month the lords fled to Stirling by night, and the regent re-entered the capital in triumph.

In the following year, Elizabeth concluded with the lords of the congregation a treaty of mutual defence, and shortly after sent a fleet of thirteen ships of war into the Forth, by which Leith was attacked from the sea, while 6000 English and a considerable Scottish force blockaded it on the land side. The French garrison made a brave and skilful resistance, which gained them a high reputation among soldiers throughout Europe. The place was at length surrendered at the treaty of Edinburgh between England, France, and the lords of the congregation, one of the consequences of the death of the queen-regent about a month before.

4. Francis II. having left Mary a widow at the end of 1560, she was invited to return to her native throne, and in August 1561, she landed in Scotland, oppressed with melancholy forebodings. Her heart was, however, cheered by the transports of her loyal subjects, and her beauty and engaging manners gradually won upon their affections. But the reformed doctrines were then rapidly gaining ground in Scotland, and she being firmly attached to the Romish church, many of the clergy and people were disposed to view her religious observances with jealousy. Unfortunately, too, she was surrounded by factious nobles who were continually plotting against each other, and disturbing the country by their feuds. To enable her to control these fiery spirits, and to provide against the dangers of a disputed succession, the Scots were anxious that the queen should marry, but were by no means agreed regarding the person who should be chosen as her husband. Mary's own inclinations would have led her to an alliance with some foreign prince; but a papist consort would have displeased her subjects, and probably occasioned

a war with England. At length Henry Stewart, lord Darnley, the queen's first cousin, and Elizabeth's second cousin, was selected, and, after much controversy and long delay, the marriage was celebrated on the 29th of July 1565. Immediately the lords of the congregation flew to arms: Murray, Chatelherault, Argyll, Glencairn, and others, assembled their forces; but Mary took the field against them in person, and after a remarkable campaign, known as the "Round-about Raid," drove them into England, where they were safe under the protection of Elizabeth.

5. Darnley had been but a short time married to the queen when his insolence, extravagance, and dissipation, began to alienate her affections. Instead of assigning this change to the true cause, he fancied that some other person must have supplanted him; and his suspicions fell upon David Rizzio, an Italian musician, whose knowledge of languages had recommended him to the queen as her foreign secretary. Rizzio was ugly and deformed, and was scarcely the kind of person who could have made Darnley jealous of the queen's affections. But he was a man of learning and accomplishments, who could please her with such conversation as she had enjoyed in France; and her husband could not endure that a person of his class should exercise any influence over her. The fierce Scottish barons despised such acquirements as the Italian possessed, and were disgusted that a foreign fiddler should be employed in affairs of state. It was thus no difficult matter for Darnley to find individuals ready to stain their hands with his blood. On the 9th March 1566, as the queen was at supper in her apartment at Holyrood, attended by Rizzio and the Countess of Argyll, the king suddenly entered by a private passage, followed by Lord Ruthven and other conspirators in full armour. The unfortunate secretary, suspecting the object of such an unusual occurrence, took refuge behind the queen; but notwithstanding her tears, her threats, and her entreaties, "Signior Davie," as the conspirators called him, was dragged into an adjoining room, and despatched with a multitude of wounds. In a dark corner of the old apartments of Holyrood Palace they still profess to show the stains of his blood on the floor.

After the perpetration of this revolting murder, the queen was kept a prisoner and strictly guarded, Darnley assumed the sole power, and Morton, with his armed retainers, received injunctions that no one should be permitted to leave the

palace. Mary's courage and presence of mind, however, did not forsake her. During the following day she succeeded in alarming the fears and awakening the love of her husband, and prevailed with him to aid in her escape. She lulled the suspicions of her guards by retiring early to rest, and at midnight mounted a fleet horse, and, accompanied only by the king and another attendant, fled to Dunbar. Here she was joined by the Earls of Bothwell and Huntly, who raised an army of 8000 men, and compelled the murderers of Rizzio to seek refuge in England under the protection of Elizabeth, at whose intercession they were afterwards pardoned, and permitted to return to Scotland. On the 19th of June 1566, following these events, Mary gave birth to a prince in the castle of Edinburgh, who was baptized under the names of Charles James.

The queen's husband had so deeply offended all parties, that he now found himself almost without a friend. While at Glasgow, he caught the small-pox, and before he had completely recovered, he was removed to Edinburgh that he might have easier access to his physicians. A lonely mansion called the Kirk of Field, situate where the college of Edinburgh now stands, but at that time without the walls, was fitted up for his reception, and here the queen assiduously attended him. On the 9th of February 1567, she left his lodging at eleven at night to attend the marriage of one of her maids at Holyrood, and at two next morning the house was blown up, and the body of the king found in an adjoining garden. The Earl of Bothwell was openly charged with the murder, but was acquitted after a mock trial. Shortly after this he forcibly seized upon the queen's person, and carried her off to Dunbar Castle; and then, as if this violence had been a mere form, she created him Duke of Orkney, and publicly married him on the 15th of May following.

6. Bothwell did not long enjoy his new dignity. Offended by his haughty conduct, and alarmed by his attempts to get Mary's son into his possession, the nobles entered into a combination against him, and having raised an army, marched to Edinburgh. The queen and her husband fled to Dunbar, and 17th June } collected their forces, with which they met the con-
1567. } federates at Carberry Hill, the scene of the battle of Pinkey; but the royal troops discovered no inclination to fight, and while Bothwell made his escape with a few followers, Mary was obliged to surrender. After suffering many indignities,

she was confined in the castle of Lochleven, and compelled to sign a deed resigning the sceptre to her son, and appointing as regent the Earl of Murray, the natural son of James V., a zealous supporter of the protestants, and the most formidable opponent of his sister the queen. The young prince was soon after crowned at Stirling, and the government was then carried on in the name of James VI. Bothwell ended his days in a Danish prison, where he had been confined for piracies committed in the northern seas.

Mary had been nearly a year in confinement, when she contrived to elude the vigilance of her keepers and make her escape. She was speedily joined by a number of the nobility and gentry, whose followers numbered 6000 men. But the glimpse of prosperity that now shone upon her was of short duration. At Langside, near Glasgow, her army was ^{13th May} _{1568.} completely routed by the regent; and after witnessing the dispersion of her adherents, she fled in dismay, and never drew bridle till she reached the abbey of Dundrennan in Galloway, sixty miles from the field of battle. Being now on the confines of England, Mary determined, in an evil hour, and contrary to the earnest entreaties of her attendants, to seek the protection of Elizabeth. She accordingly passed over in a boat to Workington in Cumberland, whence she was conducted to Carlisle. To her request for a personal interview, Elizabeth answered that it would first be necessary for the Scottish queen to disprove the accusations against her, and commissioners were appointed to investigate the charges. In the meantime she was removed for greater security to the castle of Tutford in Staffordshire.

While Mary remained a prisoner in England, the Duke of Norfolk became secretly attached to her, and intrigues were covertly carried on to bring about a marriage between this nobleman and the Scottish queen. Many of the nobility both in England and Scotland gave it their full concurrence, and nothing seemed wanting but the consent of Elizabeth. The regent, however, who foresaw the downfall of his own power if the marriage took place, threw difficulties in the way of a sentence of divorce against Bothwell. This necessarily occasioned a delay, during which Elizabeth got notice of the whole affair; Norfolk was committed to the Tower, while Mary was treated with increased severity.

In the end of 1569, the northern counties of England rose in revolt, under the Duke of Norfolk and the Earls of North-

umberland and Westmoreland, with the design of liberating Queen Mary. They did not succeed, and being unable to oppose the royal troops under the Duke of Sussex, their forces were scattered, and the leaders took refuge in Scotland or Flanders. Their followers were pitilessly handed over to the executioner: in the county of Durham alone more than three hundred persons suffered death, and scarcely a town or village in the north of England was without its gibbet and its victims.

7. In the midst of his power and prosperity, a tragical death overtook the Earl of Murray; he was assassinated by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh, who had been taken prisoner at Langside. Part of Hamilton's estate having been bestowed upon one of the popular party, the house was seized, and his wife turned out naked in a cold night into the open fields, in consequence of which she became insane. The injury made a deep impression on the mind of the husband, and, having vowed revenge, he shot the regent from a window as he passed through Linlithgow. The government had been assumed by the Duke of Chatelherault and the Earls of Huntly and Argyll, who stood up for the queen, and were called *Queen's men*. But the opposite faction, the *King's men* as they were called, from their professing to advocate the claims of the infant James, flew to arms under the guidance of the Earl of Morton, denied Mary's authority, and invited Elizabeth to send an army to their support. She complied: Sussex and Hunsdon entered Teviotdale, burnt 300 villages, and destroyed fifty border castles or peels, while Lord Lennox, now regent, was equally destructive in the west.

Queen Mary's affairs became daily further complicated by the indiscretion of her partisans: rumours of plots and conspiracies were continually alarming the Protestant party, and foreign powers were reported to be preparing to invade the kingdom. The Duke of Alva was said to be coming with an army to burn down London and exterminate Protestantism; the pope was to contribute his treasures, and give his benediction on the pious deed. For his share in the Rudolphi conspiracy to overthrow Elizabeth by the aid of foreign arms and money, the Duke of Norfolk suffered death, and the alarmed protestants called loudly for Mary's head. The St Bartholomew massacre, ^{28d Aug. 1572.} in which 30,000 Huguenots were butchered in cold blood, filled all England with horror and affright: every papist was looked upon as a bloodthirsty enemy, from

whom no true believer could be safe. An immediate outcry was raised for the execution of the Scottish queen, and the whole bench of bishops joined in recommending the measure. At the same time the English ministry profited by the slaughter of the protestants in France to irritate still further the minds of the Scots against their queen. The regent Mar having died in 1572, was succeeded by the unscrupulous Earl of Morton, who devoted all his energies to two objects—the enriching of himself and obeying Elizabeth's instructions. He enjoyed his power nearly five years, but at length was stripped
 A. D. } of his authority, and executed as one of Darnley's
 1581. } murderers.

During Morton's regency a serious contest took place between the ecclesiastical and civil authorities. Although the establishment of a presbyterian form of church government, which implies the equal rank and power of the ministers, did not by name abolish the office of bishop, their place was supplied by superintendents who watched over the conduct of the clergy and presided in the church-courts. Such an arrangement could not long be satisfactory—and one party called for regularly consecrated bishops according to the English model, while others demanded a pure presbyterian organization. So great, however, was the influence of the nobles, who were in the receipt of the episcopal revenues, that it was agreed in convention "That the name and office of archbishop and bishop should be continued during the king's minority, and these dignities be conferred upon the best qualified among the protestant ministers, being subject in spiritualities to the General Assembly." These bishops, however, were never popular, and the contemptuous nicknames bestowed upon them showed that the people regarded them merely as the tools of the nobility. This form continued until 1592, when an act, known as the "Charter of the Liberties of the Kirk," was passed, fully establishing the presbyterian system. The supreme government of the church was vested in the General Assembly, or ecclesiastical parliament, composed of representatives lay and clerical from each presbytery. This great body was to meet once a-year. Inferior to it were the synods, having authority over a certain number of presbyteries; below them the presbyteries, including several parishes; and last of all, the kirk-sessions, one of which was constituted in every parish.

8. In England the state of the public mind was restless and uneasy, and the most formidable evils were dreaded from

the designs of the Romanists, to repress whom new penal laws were enacted, which in some cases caused the mischief they were intended to avert. A plot was discovered in 1586, known as the Babington conspiracy, which had for its objects the murder of Elizabeth and the delivery of Mary Stewart from captivity. From the first the whole scheme was known to Walsingham, who, when the affair was ripe, seized all who had participated in the intrigue. Most of the conspirators were men of good birth and education, and suffered the penalty of their crime.

This abortive scheme accelerated the fate of Mary. After being removed from prison to prison, a commission was appointed to try the Scottish queen and pronounce judgment upon her according to an act recently passed, which authorized an inquisition upon all such as should invade the kingdom or attempt to hurt the queen's person, and that the party for or by whom such an attempt was made should be prosecuted to death. On the 11th October 1586, the thirty-six commissioners arrived at Fotheringay Castle, the last scene of Mary's sufferings. After a trial in which all the forms of law and justice were violated, the commissioners pronounced sentence against her, and both houses of parliament petitioned Elizabeth to give orders for the immediate execution of the Queen of Scots. Henry III. of France interceded for her life, but nothing could allay Elizabeth's thirst for revenge. James VI. remonstrated and recalled his ambassadors, but did not take any active measures to avert his mother's danger.

After much apparent indecision, the queen signed Mary's death-warrant on the 1st February 1587, and with the least possible delay the fatal document was sent down to Fotheringay. On the 8th, it was carried into effect in the great hall of the castle, where the unfortunate queen, whose health and beauty had both severely suffered during her long captivity, met her fate with calm and undaunted fortitude.

Great was Elizabeth's pretended anger when the news of Mary's execution reached London, and, in the vain hope of saving her own reputation, the secretary Davis was sent to the Tower for the imaginary crime of making an improper use of the death-warrant. He was afterwards condemned to pay a fine of £10,000, for which the treasury seized all his property, and during the remaining seventeen years of Elizabeth's reign, he suffered miserably from imprisonment and utter poverty.

A.D. 1600. } throne of England, a strange incident occurred, called the Gowry conspiracy, in which the chief actors were the sons of that Ruthven, earl of Gowry, who had carried him off in his youth. One of these young men stepped up to the king as he was hunting, and said he had seized a very suspicious-looking man—probably a Jesuit—with a quantity of gold, and had him safely secured in Gowry House, waiting till the king should examine him. James was fond of unravelling mysteries; he was always suspicious of the Jesuits, and had a keen eye after gold; so that he could not resist the temptation to investigate the matter. He accompanied the young man to Gowry House, in Perth, where he dined with his elder brother. After dinner he was taken secretly through passage after passage, till at length he reached a small room in a turret, where, instead of a bound captive, he saw a man in armour with a dagger in his hand. Young Ruthven seized the dagger, and presented it to the king's breast, who called out for aid: his retinue passing under the turret heard his cries, and after some difficulty found their way to the apartment. The two Ruthvens were slain on the spot; but though the most thorough investigation was afterwards made, the mystery of this conspiracy was never fully developed, and it is impossible to say what object the Ruthvens had in view.

During the few remaining years of the reign of Elizabeth, her apparently most devoted followers were paying court to James as her successor, and one of these, Sir Robert Carey, having by means of his sister, who belonged to the queen's household, been told the moment when she ceased to breathe, was instantly on horseback and on his way to Scotland. She had died at three o'clock on Thursday morning, and on Saturday night James was raised out of bed by Carey, to be informed that he was King of England. The journey was in those days considered one of astonishing rapidity.

EXERCISES.

1. What parties struggled for power on the accession of the young Queen of Scots? What was the policy of the King of England? What was the effect of his attempts? Describe Hertford's invasion. What led to Cardinal Beaton's death? Describe it. Who joined the garrison in St Andrews Castle.

2. What was the conduct of the protector Somerset? What was found in St Andrews Castle? Describe the method of gathering the people? What occurred near Musselburgh? What important act was passed?

3. Who was Mary of Guise? Whom did Queen Mary marry? What were her claims to the English throne? Describe the progress of the Reformation. Describe Elizabeth's conduct at this juncture. Describe the

proceedings of the lords of the congregation. What was concluded by the treaty of Edinburgh?

4. Mention the occurrences connected with Mary's return. Whom did the queen marry as her second husband? What was the "Round-about Raid"?

5. What was Darnley's character? Who was Rizzio? Describe his murder? What was Mary's conduct after it? When was James VI. born? Describe the manner in which Darnley was murdered. Who was suspected of the deed? How did Mary treat him?

6. What did the nobles do? What occurred at Carberry Hill? What was Mary subjected to? What was the result of her escape? Who became attached to her in England? What was the consequence of his attachment? What was the end of Bothwell?

7. Describe the assassination of the Earl of Murray. What was the conduct of Morton and the *King's men*? What fears and rumours disturbed the reformers? What advantage was taken of the rumours in England? What was Morton's fate? Describe the changes in the church government during Morton's regency. What was the Charter of the Liberties of the Kirk?

8. What was the Babington conspiracy? What was its effect? What was the nature of Mary's trial? What was her fate? What steps did Elizabeth take to make it appear that she had not caused it?

9. What was the character of King James? What events occurred in his youth? What was his conduct to the presbyterians? How did he feel regarding his mother's death? Give a history of the Gowry conspiracy. How was the information of Elizabeth's death conveyed to James?

CHAPTER XXII.

HOUSE OF STEWART—FOUR SOVEREIGNS.

JAMES I., A. D. 1603—1625.

James I.—Foreign Alliances—Conference at Hampton Court—Episcopacy in Scotland—Doctrine of *Divine Right*—Gunpowder Plot—Resistance of the Commons—Ireland—Carr and Villiers—Fate of Sir Walter Raleigh—James's Matrimonial Projects—War with Spain—Character of James I.—Literature.

1. JAMES VI. of Scotland succeeded without opposition to the English throne, under the title of James I. In acknowledgment of the marks of affection lavished on him by his new subjects, he commenced with an extraordinary profusion of titles and honours. In the short space of six weeks he created more than two hundred knights; and before he had been three months in England the number was increased to seven hundred. By such prodigality these honourable dis-

inctions lost half their value, and the whole nation murmured at favours so copiously and so indiscriminately bestowed. James, however, had the good sense to leave to Elizabeth's old ministers the principal offices and the management of the most important affairs.

In the first year of this reign two mysterious conspiracies to dethrone James were discovered—the Bye and the Main: the one to seize the king and force him to grant toleration to the catholics; the other to place Arabella Stuart on the throne. This lady, the daughter of the Earl of Lennox, brother to Darnley, James's father, was supported by a considerable party among the English catholics, and the design of raising her to the throne on the death of Elizabeth was favoured by the pope. Raleigh, Lords Cobham and Grey, were tried for their alleged share in these plots, and found guilty upon very defective evidence. Their lives were spared, while some of the inferior conspirators were executed.

The puritans, who had been suppressed by severe laws under Elizabeth, had hoped, if not for special protection, at least for milder treatment at the hands of a prince educated according to presbyterian principles. But James, disgusted with their maxims and their republican manners, and strongly attached to his prerogatives, favoured the Anglican forms of worship, which were more conformable to his own sentiments on the sovereignty and the interests of the throne. Nevertheless the desire of parading his theological learning induced

A. D. }
1604. } him to permit a conference to be held at Hampton Court between the leading men of the two parties. After several long and useless controversies in presence of the king and his ministers, the two parties separated with very different feelings towards the monarch, who, in the course of the discussion, had often repeated his favourite maxim, so pleasing to the episcopalians, and so hateful to the presbyterians,—*no bishop, no king*. After this conference James strenuously exerted himself to restore episcopacy in Scotland, and he succeeded in getting it established by parliament in 1612.

2. DIVINE RIGHT.—At this time a new doctrine, called the divine right of kings, which produced serious calamities in the ensuing reigns, was beginning to find partisans. It was chiefly supported by some episcopalian divines, who had derived it from the laws of the Roman empire after the liberties of the people had been destroyed. According to this

doctrine, the monarch represented God on earth, his nature was in a manner divine, and what he did was no more to be questioned than if it were the precept of the deity. Such was not the notion entertained about the old English kings. Sometimes, indeed, they were very powerful and very tyrannical, but it was by their talent and courage rather than by divine right that they were so. This enabled them to know how far they could go, and to draw back when it would be dangerous to push matters to extremity. Thus Henry VIII. and Queen Elizabeth were extremely tyrannical, but it will be observed that both of them exercised their tyranny through the constitutional means of their parliaments, and did not venture to tax or otherwise oppress the nation at large without the authority of the Commons. They were both very severe to their courtiers, who they knew would submit to a great deal for the sake of royal favour, but they took care not to outrage in the same manner the rights and freedom of the people at large, who had not the same inducement to bear with them. Queen Elizabeth was especially cautious not to excite opposition by overstretching her prerogative. At one time she had created a serious opposition, both in parliament and among the people, by granting monopolies. If she had adopted the divine right theory, so acceptable to her two successors, she would have said that it was her will, and so it must be ; and perhaps a rebellion might have followed. "She, however," says Mr Macaulay, "with admirable judgment and temper, declined the contest, put herself at the head of the reforming party, redressed the grievance, thanked the Commons in touching and dignified language for their tender care of the general weal, brought back to herself the hearts of the people, and left to her successors a memorable example of the way in which it behoves a ruler to deal with public movements which he has not the means of resisting."

While the spirit of constitutional opposition was thus reviving in the nation, the parliament of 1604 spoke out energetically against the rights of wardship and purveyance, while it denounced the monopolies which concentrated nearly all the commerce of the kingdom in London, and that of the metropolis in the hands of about two hundred individuals. These remonstrances, however, were for the time of no effect. James needed supplies of money, which could only be granted by the parliament, but he could make no impression upon the economical feelings or the suspicion of the Commons, who

also opposed, with more jealousy than discretion and foresight, the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland,—a measure earnestly desired by the king, and which posterity has acknowledged to have been dictated by the soundest policy.

3. **THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.**—James's conduct did not correspond with the expectations of the puritans, and it equally deceived the hopes of the Romanists. The latter, who had flattered themselves that the son of Mary Stewart would relax the severity of the laws towards them, were indignant at finding Elizabeth's stringent measures still enforced. Persecution inspired them with the desire of vengeance, and a scheme was suggested by one Robert Catesby to blow up the king, the royal family, and the parliament.

Having hired some vaults under the building where the Lords and Commons used to meet, Catesby and his associates next conveyed thither thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, and covered them over with coal and faggots. The doors were then thrown boldly open, as if the cellars contained nothing dangerous. Parliament was to assemble on the 5th of November 1605, and the royal family were expected to be present at its opening. The secret of the conspirators was religiously kept, and the success of their plan appeared certain, when Sir Thomas Tresham, one of their number, who was anxious to save the life of his brother-in-law, Lord Monteagle, sent him an enigmatical warning to absent himself from the meeting. Surprised at the contents of the mysterious note, Monteagle carried it to the secretary of state, who thought proper to lay it before the king in council. The result was an inspection of the vaults on the day before the assembling of the legislature, when a man named Guy Fawkes was found preparing the train which he was to fire next morning. He was immediately apprehended, matches and other combustibles were taken from his pockets, and the whole design was discovered. On the rack he made a confession in which he named his accomplices, the greater number of whom had fled into Warwickshire to join Sir Everard Digby, who, relying on the success of the plot, was already in arms. But the country soon began to take the alarm, and wherever the insurgents proceeded, they found a superior force ready to oppose them. Being thus beset on all sides, many of them were slain, some were taken and executed, and others experienced the king's mercy.

Next year the parliament voted considerable supplies ; but while thus complying with the wishes of the crown, they directed their vigilant and inquisitive eyes to several parts of the administration. In 1610, they pushed this investigating spirit still farther, and attempted fresh restraints upon the exercise of the prerogative. They called for the abolition of the rights of purveyance and wardship,—the latter a remnant of feudal tenure, by which, among other things, the king became guardian to wards, and received the proceeds of their estates until they came of age, without accounting for the money. They further complained of the proceedings of the Court of High Commission, and of the custom of royal proclamations, which since the reign of Henry VIII. had been received as law. The nation had now grown rich by commerce ; but the revenues of the crown, not having increased in proportion, proved insufficient for the requirements of the government. Notwithstanding this consideration, the Commons, to keep the king dependent on them, granted him but a trifling subsidy, and on the other hand passed a law suppressing *tonnage* and *poundage*, by which the king was entitled to receive a penny per pound on all imports and exports. This bill was rejected by the Lords ; and James, exceedingly irritated by the Lower House presuming to set bounds to an authority which he considered unlimited, dismissed the parliament, but without suppressing that system of resistance which the Commons had adopted.

In 1611, the pacific James I., who avoided the warfare of the sword, declared war against a theologian with a fury that strongly reminds us of the barbarous zeal of Henry VIII. Vorstius, a disciple of Arminius, differed in opinion from the King of England on predestination and grace. James persecuted this divine, as if he had formed some plot against his throne ; and procured his banishment by the States-General of Holland, insinuating at the same time that never was heretic more worthy of the stake.

4. IRELAND.—James merits considerable praise for his care in the administration of Ireland. Elizabeth had completed the subjection of the island to English supremacy ; but there remained a still more difficult task, namely, that of civilizing the Irish, accustoming them to the restraint of laws, and training them to industrious habits, so as to render their submission at once durable and useful. James began this great work in 1612, and pursued his plan with such firmness and

wisdom, that he did more in a few years for the reformation of that country than had been effected during the preceding four centuries.

After the dissolution of parliament, the king, to supply his wants, had recourse to different expedients. The star-chamber imposed excessive fines; the sale of monopolies became frequent; and even titles and honours were to be procured for money. The English dignities of baron, viscount, and earl, were respectively to be purchased for ten, fifteen, and twenty thousand pounds; in Scotland and Ireland the scale was considerably lower. But all these resources proving insufficient, the king was forced to reassemble parliament after an interruption of four years. This new body, animated by the same spirit as its predecessor, reproached the king with raising supplies in an arbitrary manner, and refused those which he required. It was accordingly dissolved on the 7th of June 1614, and the king even imprisoned some of the members,—an imprudent abuse of prerogative, calculated only to irritate the Commons and render them more intractable.

Nothing proved more injurious to the king than his weakness for favourites. He selected them without discernment, loaded them with honours and riches, and shut his eyes to the culpable use they often made of their power. A youthful Scotchman, Robert Carr, had pleased the monarch by his agreeable manners, and had rapidly risen to the highest stations. James successively created him Viscount of Rochester and Earl of Somerset, and allowed him to assume an absolute control in the affairs of the government. But the conduct of Somerset made him odious to the nation, and the king at length became sensible of his favourite's infamy. In 1616, he was tried for the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, and found guilty; but, though a number of his accomplices were executed, he himself received a pardon after some years' imprisonment.

James could not live without favourites; and a young man, named George Villiers, soon filled Somerset's place in the monarch's affection and confidence. He was created Duke of Buckingham, warden of the cinque-ports, master of the horse, constable of Windsor Castle, and lord high admiral of England. His inordinate taste for magnificence, and the bounties profusely bestowed on his indigent family, soon completely exhausted the limited resources of the king, who, to procure a small sum of money, restored to the Dutch, without con-

sulting parliament, the cautionary towns of Flushing, Brill, and Rammekins, which they had pledged to Elizabeth as security for loans advanced to the republic. James was content with 2,700,000 florins, which was about one-third of the amount really due. This money was soon spent in a journey to Scotland, as was also a large sum procured by alienating the royal domains. In nearly every county the crown possessed extensive estates, which were let on time-leases and at a low rental. In this way, many powerful families and a great number of the towns were in the position of royal tenants. The renewal of the leases brought in a considerable sum. Moreover, the fear that their tenancy would not be prolonged after the expiration of their leases, kept all the leaseholders in dependence on the crown. The king, having obtained from parliament an authority to alienate this property in perpetuity, sold it with the only reserve of the former annual rent, thus sacrificing to his penury a most important branch of the royal authority.

5. James, who fell into disrepute in consequence of his vicious administration, the faults of which so strongly contrasted with the glory and prosperity of the preceding reign, sank still lower in public opinion by his treatment of one of the greatest men of the age. Sir Walter Raleigh, for his participation in the conspiracy to place Arabella Stuart on the throne, had been kept thirteen years confined in the Tower. The people, who considered him as one of the chief causes of the death of Essex, had at first rejoiced in his disgrace; but their animosity had faded away with the course of time, and they now began to regret that the talents of so superior a man should be lost to his country. On these favourable sentiments he founded hopes of liberty, and in order to strengthen them, he announced that during Elizabeth's reign he had discovered a most valuable gold mine in Guiana. The king was thus induced to restore him to freedom, and even gave him the command of certain adventurers who offered to follow him to America; but the old sentence of death still remained in force against him. He sailed with fourteen vessels, and arriving on the coast of Guiana, found that the whole plan of his expedition had been communicated to the Spaniards, who had collected troops to oppose it. In revenge for an attack made upon them during the night, Raleigh's party burnt the town of St Thomas, near which the mine was supposed to be situated; but the object of the expedition was completely

frustrated, and he was constrained to return to England. The Spanish ambassador was loud in his complaints, and demanded that justice should be executed upon the pirates, as he termed Raleigh and his companions. It was unfortunate that, at the time of their return, Buckingham was endeavouring to ingratiate himself with the court of Madrid, and was negotiating the marriage of the infanta with the Prince of Wales. The consequence was, that James disavowed Raleigh's enterprise, and ordered the sentence to be carried into effect which had been passed upon him fifteen years before. He was beheaded on the 29th of October 1618, and met his fate with the most undaunted firmness, remarking, as he examined the executioner's axe, that it was a sharp but sure remedy for all diseases.

THIRTY YEARS' WAR, 1618.—While James was negotiating with Spain, and sacrificing to its resentment one of his most illustrious subjects, he was informed that the elector-palatine, who had married his daughter Elizabeth, after losing the Bohemian crown, conferred upon him by the states of that kingdom when they had revolted against the house of Austria, had been deprived of his hereditary dominions by the Emperor Ferdinand II. His cause being that of Protestantism, the English manifested a great desire to avenge him. But James condemned, on political principles, the revolt of the Bohemians and his son-in-law's enterprise. On the other hand, he could not quarrel with the emperor without declaring himself an enemy of Spain, whom it was his interest to conciliate; and even had he been inclined to engage in a war, his financial difficulties would have prevented him. He flattered himself that he would be able to restore the elector by peaceful means, and was therefore resolved not to take up arms; but, in deference to the feelings of the nation, he dissembled his secret views. After having vainly called for *benevolences*, he found himself under the necessity of again summoning a parliament, although he entertained little hope of its proving more accommodating than the two preceding assemblies.

6. When the Commons met, they granted supplies, at the same time respectfully remonstrating with the king against certain abuses and monopolies, which he had the wisdom to A.D. } correct. But in the following session they did not show 1621. } the same moderation; they claimed the right to examine into every grievance, and to submit the rights of the crown to the most minute control, while they interfered in matters which James looked upon as affairs of state beyond their sta-

tion and ability, representing to him the necessity of arming in defence of the elector-palatine and of the protestant religion. The king, who was bitterly offended at these demands of the parliament, dissolved that body, imprisoned several of its members, and forbade by repeated proclamations all discussion on public affairs.

But every day now increased the distress of the elector-palatine and of the German protestants. James vainly negotiated in their favour. The marriage of his son Charles with the Infanta of Spain appeared to him the surest means of obtaining his son-in-law's restoration, and he was earnestly soliciting the alliance when Buckingham's extraordinary behaviour destroyed the fruits of six years' negotiation. This presumptuous favourite, seeking to ingratiate himself with the heir to the crown, persuaded the Prince of Wales to undertake a journey into Spain, in disguise and without attendants, to see the princess his intended wife, and offered to accompany him as his esquire. James unwillingly consented to a project which was more worthy of a hero of romance than of a minister and a statesman. But the journey produced an effect the
 A.D. } very reverse of that which was expected; for instead
 1623 } of hastening the marriage, it broke it off entirely.

Although this rupture was very gratifying to the English nation, who were generally opposed to an alliance which they considered dangerous to the cause of Protestantism, it was very annoying to the king. Buckingham eagerly inflamed his master's resentment to gratify his own, and excited him to declare war against Spain in conformity with the wishes
 A.D. } of the nation. James called a parliament in order to
 1624 } procure the necessary supplies; and instead of addressing them in his usual manner, he assumed a tone of great moderation and sweetness, even consenting that the expenditure of the subsidy should be confided to parliamentary commissioners. But notwithstanding this unprecedented concession, he obtained a part only of what he asked, and had the vexation of seeing the Commons make new attempts upon the royal prerogative. They abolished all monopolies, as being contrary to the laws and liberties of the kingdom; and in the same act laid down the principle that every citizen was free master of his own actions, provided he injured no one, and that neither the royal prerogative nor the authority of any magistrate, in fine that the laws alone, could put bounds to the exercise of this unlimited right.

7. James, being now engaged in war with Spain, courted the alliance of France, where the influence of Richelieu's genius began already to be felt. He obtained for the Prince of Wales the hand of the Princess Henrietta, sister to Louis XIII., with a dowry of 800,000 crowns. But he did not live to see the arrival either of the money or the daughter-in-law. His health had been for some time in a precarious state, and he was now attacked by an ague and the worst kind of gout, which, being aggravated by improper medical treatment, speedily proved fatal. He expired on the 27th of March 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the twenty-third of his reign from the death of Elizabeth.

The character of James offers the most singular contrasts. He was a profound scholar, but with little of that knowledge really necessary for a sovereign. His conversation abounded in maxims of political wisdom, yet his conduct often bore the stamp of folly. Although exceedingly jealous of his authority, he allowed himself to be governed by unworthy favourites. He desired to uphold his dignity, and yet continually lowered himself by a trivial familiarity which he mistook for affability. He was witty, yet pedantic; learned, but fond of the conversation of the ignorant and uneducated; laborious in trifles, and frivolous when he should have devoted himself to serious labours. Although his sentiments were religious, his conversation was often profane. Naturally just and benevolent, he was incapable of preventing the injustice of his favourites or of the depositaries of his power. Economical, and even miserly when he had to give money with his own hands, he squandered it without reflection when he was only required to sign a draft on his treasurer. The good qualities which he displayed on certain occasions were subject to too many vicissitudes to regulate his general conduct; and as they only showed themselves at intervals, they in some measure justify Sully's description, that James was the wisest fool in all Christendom; and Henry IV., ridiculing his pedantry and timidity, entitled him a captain of arts and bachelor of arms.

During this reign the learned and judicious Bacon shed the brilliant light of his genius over the extensive field of philosophy; and the later dramatic works of the illustrious Shakespeare were represented, though it was not till after numerous solicitations that James granted him the privilege of performing his pieces in a wretched barn entitled the *Globe Theatre*. Fairfax translated Tasso's *Jerusalem Delivered*, and Harring-

ton the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto. Donne composed satires in a style as harsh as they are turgid. Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity* is a work of undying fame; and the celebrated *Institutes* of Coke are a standard authority on English law.

EXERCISES.

1. What circumstances characterized the commencement of the reign of James in England? What is meant by the Bye and the Main? Describe the king's conduct to the puritans.
2. What new political doctrine grew up at this time? Where did it originate? State how it contrasted with the old English principles. How was James's conduct different from Elizabeth's? What did the parliament do?
3. What was the cause of the gunpowder plot? Describe the method in which it was set about. By what accident was it discovered? What was the fate of the conspirators? Against what exercises of prerogative did the Commons exert themselves? What sort of a war did James carry on?
4. What was the merit of James in his treatment of Ireland? What was its effect? What expedients did he adopt to raise money? What dispute occurred between the king and parliament? Give a history of the king's first favourite. Who succeeded him? What were Buckingham's character and conduct?
5. What discovery did Sir Walter Raleigh profess to have made? What was the result of his expedition? What was his fate? What occurred as to the dominions of the king's son-in-law. How did James act in this matter?
6. Describe the proceedings of the Commons. How did the king try to meet them? What did he hope to accomplish by the Spanish match? What romantic journey did the prince make? What further steps did the parliament take towards freedom?
7. Whom did the prince marry? When did James die? What was his character? How did Sully characterize him? Mention the names and works of some of the great literary men of his reign.

 CHAPTER XXIII.

CHARLES I. TO THE LONG PARLIAMENT, A. D. 1625—1640.

Charles I.—Marriage with Henrietta of France—Contest with the Commons—War with France—Petition of Rights—Murder of Buckingham—Siege of Rochelle—Rise of Strafford—Condition of Ireland—Ship-Money—Land—Religious Disturbances in Scotland—The Covenant—Scottish War.

1. THIS unfortunate king succeeded to a throne which appeared to be firmly established, while, in reality, it was threatened on every side by secret enemies. The nation was labouring under a grievous disorder,—a dangerous spirit of controversy

in politics and religion. At this epoch, every one became a theologian or a statesman; and the multitude began to examine into the sovereignty of the prince and the constitution of the church. A great crisis was at hand, to prevent or encounter which required rare skill or extraordinary energy. Charles was deficient to a certain degree in neither. And yet, if he does not appear to have possessed these qualities in sufficient abundance, we should remember that he was always placed in extraordinary positions, where common rules proved useless, and where it was impossible for reason to point out the best course. He possessed many great private and even public virtues: his worst enemies admitted the former, and an impartial posterity will not deny him some of the latter. But he had one defect, which was the most dangerous he could have had in the circumstances in which he was placed. He was not straightforward and decided, and thus those who dealt with him never felt secure. He gave way only when he could not hold out, and did it in such a manner that people always thought he wanted some loophole for his escape. This unfortunate propensity cost him his life, for those who put him to death would probably not have gone to that extremity, had they not feared that they would lose their own lives if he should recover his power.

His marriage was one of the first causes of irritation. Henrietta of France, to whom he was united soon after his accession, did honour to her rank by the charms of her person, and the excellent qualities of her mind and heart; but the people entertained a prejudice against queens of French origin, alleging that they had never contributed to the happiness of England. Besides, Henrietta was a Roman-catholic. Even had she practised the duties of her religion with the greatest reserve, she would still have been suspected by her protestant subjects; but much more was their distrust aroused, when they saw her manifesting the greatest respect for the Romish church, and, conformably with the instructions she had received from her mother Mary de Medicis, protecting her oppressed fellow-catholics and interceding for them. Not content with employing her mediation in their favour, she ventured to intermeddle with public affairs, and the control which the king's great affection allowed her to take, caused him to be unjustly suspected of an attachment to popery, and furnished his enemies with the means of misrepresenting his most innocent proceedings.

Charles committed another serious fault in granting his entire confidence to the Duke of Buckingham, who, after being the father's favourite, had become the son's also. The king allowed himself to be entirely ruled by this minister, and as he defended him against the attacks of parliament, he thus became a sharer in the minion's unpopularity.

2. CONTEST WITH PARLIAMENT.—Although Charles continued the war against Spain, the parliament which he called in 1625 confined their grant to some trifling supplies, and indulged in bitter complaints against the favourite. It was dissolved, and a new one summoned in the following year, which was found to be composed of nearly the same individuals as the former, but more inclined to resistance, because they conceived that the people had sanctioned their political conduct by this repeated proof of confidence. Before bestowing a thought on the pecuniary exigences of the state, the Commons, as was their constant practice during this reign, inquired into what they called the *national grievances*. Instead of voting supplies, they drew up remonstrances against the toleration granted to the papists, and against the levy of tonnage and poundage.

Charles dissolved this parliament, and was again reduced to have recourse to arbitrary expedients. He made terms with the Romanists for dispensations from the severity of the penal laws, extorted *benevolences* and forced loans,—illegal measures, which numerous precedents could not prevent from being considered as incompatible with the constitution of the country.

At a time when the resources of the crown were insufficient and precarious, the king's difficulties were still further increased by the temerity of Buckingham. When ambassador in France, to negotiate Charles's marriage, the favourite had been guilty of indiscretion and insolence of the same kind as he had shown in Spain, and Richelieu had forbidden him to enter the kingdom again. Taking advantage of his ascendancy over his master's mind, Buckingham converted him into an instrument of personal revenge, and prevailed upon him to declare war against France, under pretext of assisting the protestants of Rochelle, then besieged by the cardinal. This compliance with his favourite's wishes, in such a critical conjuncture, would have been an inexplicable weakness in the king, if he had not hoped that a war undertaken in favour of the protestants would please the English nation and render

parliament more tractable. But, to have produced such desirable results, the war should have been successful and the favourite disgraced; but, on the contrary, Buckingham commanded the expedition, which met with nothing but disaster.

PETITION OF RIGHTS.—In 1628, Charles summoned a third parliament, which agreed to grant him five subsidies, making in the whole between three and four hundred thousand pounds. But before the bill became law, the Commons resolved on erecting a barrier which the royal prerogative could not overstep, and which should put the nation beyond the reach of any illegal measures on the part of the crown. They drew up a bill, better known as the *Petition of Rights*, by which they required that no one should be constrained to furnish any tax, loan, or benevolence, without the consent of both houses of parliament; that the people should be exempt from the quartering of seamen and soldiers; that no person should be imprisoned arbitrarily; that martial law should be abolished; and that no man should be tried otherwise than according to the forms and laws of the kingdom. The Upper Chamber proposed a modification of this article, but the Commons were inflexible. Finally, the Lords gave way and passed the bill, which received the royal assent. The triumphant Commons immediately planned fresh attacks on the prerogative, which Charles arrested by proroguing parliament.

3. In the meantime, Buckingham was at Portsmouth preparing an expedition to France, when he was stabbed by a madman named Felton. The English fleet appeared before Rochelle under the command of Earl Lindsey; but it could not force the dike which Richelieu had erected across the mouth of the harbour, and the citizens surrendered at discretion under the eyes of the English admiral.

The failure of this expedition tended to weaken still more the authority of Charles with the parliament; and when this body met after the prorogation, the Commons vigorously pursued their system of hostility against the crown. They were bent upon stripping the king of his right to tonnage and poundage, which formed the largest portion of his revenues. This right had at first been merely a temporary concession of parliament, but after the reign of Henry VII., the English sovereigns had raised the tax without being questioned. Immediately on their accession, they had provisionally levied tonnage and poundage; and their first parliament had always granted it to them for life. Charles, who had regularly levied

this impost since the commencement of his reign, although it had been granted for a year only, acknowledged that he could not justify it except by the example of his predecessors and the necessities of the public service; but he solicited the Commons to establish by law what had hitherto been excused by usage and authorized by national exigences. At first, the Commons promised a bill on this subject, then deferred it from day to day, and at length declared, that every one who should exact this tax should be considered a public enemy, and that whoever paid it should be looked upon as a traitor to his country. A dissolution, that extreme and violent measure which had been so frequently abused since the commencement of this reign, and which, by the animosity it created, prepared the way for subsequent disasters, was immediately pronounced; and Charles, indulging in imprudent anger against the "*vipers*" of the Lower House, imprisoned some of the more ardent members of that body. To avoid

A.D. } exposing himself to such opposition in future, he con-
1629. } cluded a peace with France and Spain, and deter-
A.D. } mined to govern the country without the assistance of
1630. } parliament.

RISE OF STRAFFORD.—The *petition of rights* had been in a great measure the work of Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford. He thus entered public life as a partisan of the parliamentary party, but afterwards he went over to the royal side, which found in him a faithful servant and an unscrupulous minister. He was appointed Lord-deputy of Ireland in 1633, where he soon raised himself to that bad eminence which can never be forgotten; and yet his government was for a time and in some respects advantageous to the country, by allowing no other tyrant there but himself.

Wentworth in the king's name suddenly claimed all the lands in the province of Connaught, which he maintained had fallen to the crown through the forfeiture of an Irish rebel so far back as the reign of Edward IV. It was not his intention to deprive the holders of their property, but to extort money on consideration of giving them valid titles instead of their present insecure tenures. By threats and promises the exchequer was partly replenished; but the jury of Galway proved obstinate. For this the sheriff was fined £1000, and the jurors dragged to Dublin, and condemned in penalties of £4000 each. Wentworth's tyranny soon rendered him the most unpopular man in Ireland, so much so that the English and Scotch emi-

grants refused to occupy the lands which had been seized for the crown, and preferred the wilds of America to the pleasant banks of the Shannon.

The Ulster presbyterians suffered not less than the Roman-catholics. Elizabeth had endeavoured to colonize that large province, but it was not done effectually until James's reign. After the flight of the Earl of Tyrone, O'Dogherty, the leader of the rebels, was driven back to the mountains, where he was killed by a random shot. His followers then dispersed, and nearly the whole country, about 2,000,000 acres, was forfeited to the crown. This wide tract was allotted out in portions of 1000 or 2000 acres each, the larger being reserved for *undertakers*, or adventurers of capital from England or Scotland, and military or civil officers. The smaller lots fell principally to the natives of the province. The English and Scotch were to occupy the hilly and strong ground as posts of defence; but they soon learned to prefer the fertile soil of the plains. The new inhabitants were principally Scotch, with whom and their church Wentworth causelessly interfered, throwing their elders into prison, and banishing their ministers who would not conform to the episcopalian forms of worship.

4. SHIP-MONEY.—The country, to outward appearance, under Charles's government, flourished in peace and plenty; the boundaries of the empire were extended by the foundation of new colonies beyond the seas; and England concentrated in her harbours the commerce of the world. But the people could not forget that Charles desired to be an absolute monarch. Although his expenses were much diminished by the cessation of hostilities, they still far exceeded his revenue, and all his economy could not prevent him from being obliged to have recourse to illegal taxes. The courtiers, who wished to propitiate him, exercised their ingenuity in discovering ancient or inventing new methods of taxing without the intervention of parliament. Noy the attorney-general considered that his antiquarian researches were particularly lucky, for he discovered an ancient impost for the support of ships, supposed to have commenced when the Danes ravaged the coast. After having been long forgotten, it was revived in 1634, for the professed purpose of keeping up the royal navy, which had been much neglected during James's reign. Such was the celebrated tax of ship-money. These taxes might be considered trifling in their amount, and they were in general applied to the best uses; but they were arbitrary. The government, meeting with resistance,

was often led to adopt unjust and oppressive measures, which drove many people to seek a new home in America; and the emigration at last became so alarming, that it was judged proper to put a stop to it by an order in council.

In these critical circumstances the king imprudently created new difficulties. A blind zeal and pernicious counsels led him to introduce religious changes in Scotland, which excited violent disturbances in that kingdom, and had a decisive influence on the fate of England. Charles, like his father, was attached to episcopacy, and would have conferred on the bishops an authority which he thought equally advantageous to religion and to the throne. Although the antipathy of the Scotch was nearly as great against the episcopalian as against the Romish church, James had endeavoured to establish among them the Anglican hierarchy and liturgy. The change had made some progress, when the Quixotic journey of the Prince of Wales into Spain, the consequent rupture and war, and the parliamentary disputes that succeeded, diverted the king's attention from religious matters. Presbyterianism, almost crushed in Scotland, uprose more formidable than ever; and Charles, determined on opposing it, and misled by the zeal of Laud, proceeded to follow out his father's plans.

5. LAUD.—Those who were best acquainted with Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, describe him as a man of fervent piety, extensive learning, austere manners, unshrinking courage, and eminent virtue. But his public acts as an ecclesiastical politician were those of a man absolute, impetuous, and intolerant. As a declared enemy of puritanism, he desired at all risks to unite the three kingdoms under the authority of the Anglican church. Success in this design, even if it had been possible, depended on not startling the presbyterians by a parade of ceremonies which they detested in their hearts. The primate, on the contrary, feeling persuaded that religion could not be surrounded with too much pomp, had made several innovations with a view to render the form of worship more ceremonious. These changes gave deep offence to many members even of the established Church of England. From all sides arose an outcry against "idolatry," and already the multitude fancied they saw Romanism resuming its empire. Although episcopacy had been restored in Scotland, it was in a more presbyterian shape than in England, and the service less formal and solemn, yet it had much more formality than the people liked. Laud was not content that it should be the same

as that of the Church of England, which did not entirely please him—he resolved to introduce into the new Scottish service, prepared under his auspices, some features which were nearer to Roman-catholicism.

When, in 1633, Charles visited Edinburgh, where his coronation was celebrated, he empowered a commission of bishops to prepare a liturgy for the Church of Scotland on these principles. The commission occupied four years in the task,—a delay which gave the leading men time to prepare for resistance, and to persuade their followers that the king's great aim was the establishment of popery.

THE COVENANT.—At length the order was given to read the new prayers in all the Scottish churches. On the 23d July 1637. } appointed day the Dean of Edinburgh, wearing a surplice, appeared in the cathedral of that city to officiate according to the new formula. “A pope! a pope! Antichrist,” exclaimed a woman, and the whole congregation repeated the cry: books, stools, and other missiles were hurled at the dean's head; and when the bishop entered the pulpit he was assailed in a similar manner. The magistrates with difficulty succeeded in quelling the tumult; but it broke out again a few months afterwards, and in a more alarming manner. The insurrection soon became general. The excited peasantry collected in Edinburgh from all the surrounding districts; and “presbyterianism or death” became the rallying cry of 60,000 determined opponents of prelacy. At length, four tables or committees, composed of the higher nobility, the gentry, the presbyterian clergy, and the burgesses, drew up the famous *covenant*, and all who subscribed it bound themselves to defend the true religion, to oppose every error and corruption, to unite for the defence of the king, his person, and his authority, for the preservation of the religion, laws, and liberty of the kingdom. The people assembled in crowds to sign this manifesto, and then flew to arms; while the king, hesitating to employ force, negotiated with the rebels, and made many concessions. The liturgy and the court of high commission were withdrawn, and Charles flattered himself with the hope of preserving the episcopacy at least, as the reward of his sacrifices. But this was abolished by a General Assembly held at Glasgow, which also repealed all the laws appertaining to doctrine and discipline that had been passed since the accession of James VI. to the English crown, and pronounced sentence of excommunication against all who should refuse to sign the Scottish covenant.

6. Such a bold step necessarily led to war. The Covenanters seized the revenues of the crown, its magazines, and strongholds. An army was soon raised and placed under the orders of General Lesly, whom personal resentment had exasperated against the court of London. Charles now saw the necessity of reducing the rebels. Although the English people were in general much opposed to this war, yet they congratulated each other on a concurrence of circumstances that must necessarily compel the king to call a parliament, and afford an opportunity to redress the grievances of England. But Charles, shrinking from such an extremity, had recourse to other resources. He borrowed large sums from the nobility, exacted loans from the judges and officers of the government, and received from the clergy of all ranks liberal contributions towards this "episcopalian war." By means of these supplies, and with the aid of the court nobility and a great number of country gentlemen, who crowded with their tenantry round the royal banner, Charles collected an army of 20,000 foot and 6000 horse, supported by a considerable
 A.D. 1639. } fleet. The rebels were not in a condition to oppose such a powerful force, and if one vigorous blow had been struck, the war would probably have been ended. But Charles was restrained by his affection for the Scotch, and by his aversion to severe measures. He permitted himself to be softened by the first symptoms of submission, and a treaty was concluded on the 18th June 1639.

The hollow peace which succeeded was of short duration, and Charles was compelled to resume his arms. He recalled Wentworth from Ireland, created him Earl of Strafford, and made him his principal minister. All his resources, however, were exhausted, and he was obliged to convene a parliament, and writs were accordingly issued for assembling that body both in England and Ireland.

In a fortnight Wentworth obtained from the Irish parliament all that he desired; but a less docile body awaited him in England. Charles, flattering himself that the ancient jealousy between England and Scotland would advance his cause, and prevail over every other consideration, had at length assembled the English parliament after an interval of eleven years. But the new members, far from disapproving of the Scotch revolt, looked upon it as an opportunity and a precedent. Instead of voting the required supplies, they drew up a long catalogue of the abuses and wrongs that had neces-

sarily accompanied the exercise of absolute power during so long a period, and solicited their redress, without regard to the representations of the Lords, who called upon them to inquire first into the necessities of the state. Charles dissolved this fourth parliament, as he had dismissed its predecessors,—an imprudent measure, which greatly increased the danger of his position (1640).

The clergy, who had been convoked at the same time as the parliament, concluded their sittings by voting six subsidies. This supply, and the gratuitous presents which his faithful servants lavished on the king with generous eagerness, enabled him to raise a second army. But instead of acting with celerity, he lost much valuable time in fruitless negotiation. Lesly at length crossed the Tweed at the head of the Covenanters, surprised the advanced posts of the English army, drove before him the main body, and took possession of Durham and Newcastle. Strafford rallied the royalists, and advised the king to give battle. But the Scotch proposed a negotiation, to which, contrary to the earl's advice, the king assented. A suspension of arms was agreed to, and the Scotch remained provisionally in possession of their conquests, while the conclusion of a definitive treaty was adjourned to London.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the state of the nation at the accession of Charles? What was his character? What were the defects which caused his chief calamities? How did the character of his wife affect him with the country? What was the effect of his partiality for Buckingham?

2. How did the disputes between the king and parliament begin? What inquiries was it the practice of parliament to make? What remedies did the king attempt? What was the conduct of Buckingham? What circumstance helped him in furthering his personal objects? What was the petition of rights?

3. What was the fate of Buckingham? How did the expedition to Rochelle turn out? What discussion arose from the imposition of tonnage and poundage? What was the conduct of the king towards the House of Commons? What was Wentworth's history? Describe his proceedings in Ireland.

4. What was the outward appearance of the state of the country at this time? What discovery did Noy make? What was the effect of the attempt to extort ship-money? Describe the events which produced discontent in Scotland.

5. What was the character of Archbishop Laud? What did he desire to accomplish in Scotland? How was the liturgy for Scotland prepared? Describe what took place when it was first used. Relate the events that followed in Scotland.

6. Who led the Scottish army into England? What was the feeling of the English about it? How did Charles act? What use did the English members of parliament make of these events? What did Lesly and the Scottish army accomplish?

CHAPTER XXIV.

FROM THE MEETING OF THE LONG PARLIAMENT TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES I., A. D. 1640—1649.

The Long Parliament—Impeachment of Strafford—Massacre in Ireland—
The Remonstrance—Impeachment of the Five Members—Commence-
ment of the Civil War—Cromwell—Scottish Army enters England—
Battle of Marston Moor—The Independents—The Self-denying Ordinance—Trial and Execution of the King.

1. "BETWEEN the dissolution of the fourth and the meeting of the fifth parliament," says Macaulay, "there intervened a few months, during which the yoke was pressed down more severely than ever on the nation, while the spirit of the nation rose up more angrily than ever against it. Members of the House of Commons were questioned by the Privy Council touching their parliamentary conduct, and thrown into prison for refusing to reply. Ship-money was levied with increased rigour. The Lord Mayor and the Sheriffs of London were threatened with imprisonment for remissness in collecting the payments. Soldiers were enlisted by force. Money for their support was exacted from their counties. Torture, which had always been illegal, and which had recently been declared illegal even by the servile judges of that age, was inflicted for the last time in England in the month of May 1640."

Charles having exhausted his precarious resources, a fifth parliament was assembled in November 1640. This was the famous Long Parliament, which overturned the throne, sacrificed the king, and ultimately became the victim of its own despotism and contempt for the laws.

There were undoubtedly many individuals in this assembly whose only desire was to limit the royal authority; but there were others who secretly laboured to destroy it. One of the main objects of the party opposed to the court was to get rid of Strafford, whom they viewed as their most dangerous enemy, and who had established an absolute military government in Ireland, intending as they believed to extend it to England. The nature of his plans has been thus described

by Mr Macaulay. "This object was to do in England all and more than all that Richelieu was doing in France; to make Charles a monarch as absolute as any on the continent; to put the estates and the personal liberty of the whole people at the disposal of the crown; to deprive the courts of law of all independent authority even in all questions of civil right between man and man, and to punish with merciless rigour all who murmured at the acts of the government, or who applied even in the most decent and regular manner to any tribunal for relief against those acts."

The attack on this powerful statesman was commenced by Pym, who proposed to institute an inquiry into the present state of Ireland, with the view of revealing a series of transactions of which he had already informed himself through secret agents. Pym and his party proceeded so sagaciously and successfully that the same Irish Commons, who a few months before had greeted Strafford with enthusiasm, drew up against him a long list of grievances, which their commissioners laid before the king. On this foundation Pym grounded a capital accusation against the minister.

Strafford was with the army in the north of England when letters reached him warning him of his imminent danger, and he was advised either to withdraw secretly to some foreign country, or to place his reliance on the affections of the troops. But he professed to desire no other support than his innocence, and determined to appeal to parliament. A numerous deputation, with Pym at its head, accused him before the Lords of high-treason, and he was immediately placed in custody until the charges should be investigated.

The leaders of the Commons hastened to set the seal to their victory by making radical changes in the constitution. Many of these alterations were certainly wise and beneficial. The limitation of the duration of parliaments, the independence of the judges, the suppression of illegal taxes and courts, of arbitrary arrests and imprisonment, the accountability of the treasury, and the responsibility of ministers, were all acts conducive to the public welfare. But few men, situated as they were, conduct their proceedings with absolute justice and moderation. They took up their position as the enemies of the court, and considered every victory they could gain over it a fair advantage. Thus, there were many arrogant and arbitrary acts done by that parliament which few people will now be hardy enough to vindicate. Charles, alarmed by

Strafford's danger, endeavoured to disarm the Commons by condescension. Each succeeding sacrifice appeared to him a guarantee for his minister's safety, and from concession to concession, he at last allowed himself to be deprived of nearly every means of defence.

2. STRAFFORD'S IMPEACHMENT.—At length after an investigation that lasted three months, the Commons, through their organ Pym, brought twenty-eight charges against Strafford, in pursuance of an old constitutional principle, by which the legislature, including the King, the Lords, and the Commons, were entitled to punish any great and powerful oppressor too strong to be reached by the ordinary laws. The Commons, therefore, passed a bill of attainder against Strafford. He was a man of high genius, and of a bold and commanding spirit, and he defended himself with great eloquence. When the Commons, who were his enemies, had passed the bill, it had to receive the assent of the House of Lords, who were supposed to be friendly to him, and of the king, whom he had zealously served. After unavailing negotiations with the Lower House to save the life of his minister, the king prepared to employ force, and turned his eyes to the army. But this unhappy prince was surrounded by traitors: his intentions were revealed to the Commons, who immediately wrote to the army for the purpose of influencing it in their favour, and passed a bill depriving the king of the power of dissolving or even proroguing parliament without the consent of both houses. When the bill for the attainder of Strafford was passed by the Peers, only one-half of them voted. It has been inferred, that those who were absent were in his favour, and they thus incurred the odium of cowardice in leaving him to his fate.

The king's assent was still required. The privy-council, the magistrates, and the bishops, who were all in turns consulted, advised him to yield, and while thus distracted, Charles received a letter from Strafford, who with a magnanimity that went far to redeem his faults, begged his royal master to abandon him to his fate. At length, the king, even while declaring that his hand should never sign the fatal warrant, had the weakness to authorize a commission to sign the bills that awaited his sanction,—a step for which he never ceased to reproach himself through the remainder of his brief but troubled life. Strafford underwent his sentence on the 12th of May 1641 with calm intrepidity. There is no doubt that

many men who have followed out designs as bad or worse have been successful instead of being punished, and that his death was rather a piece of party vengeance than of strict justice. But of all who were concerned in the matter, certainly the Commons, who held him all along as a criminal deserving of punishment, were less blamable than the king, for whose service he was a sufferer, and his friends in the House of Lords who had approved of his conduct. The Archbishop of Canterbury had been arrested with Strafford, but a single victim was sufficient at that time for the views of the parliament, and Laud was not brought to trial. He was left to languish in prison, and reserved until a later period (January 10, 1645), when he was beheaded on Tower Hill.

3. THE IRISH MASSACRE.—The parliamentary measures previous to Strafford's execution had placed almost the whole power in the hands of the Commons. Charles still preserved a faint shadow of his authority, when an unexpected catastrophe furnished them with the means of completing his ruin. Taking advantage of the dissensions in England and Scotland, the Irish thought this a favourable opportunity for shaking off their yoke, and formed a plan for exterminating all the English in their island, 40,000 of whom are said to have been massacred (1641). As soon as the news of this terrible slaughter reached Charles, he hastened to demand from parliament the means of avenging his murdered subjects; but the Commons would grant him no assistance, and insinuations were even thrown out that he had himself fomented the insurrection. These suspicions were much strengthened by a discovery that there existed a secret treaty between the Earl of Glamorgan and the catholics, for whom he had engaged to procure a repeal of the penal laws and other advantages. When attacked for his presumption in concluding such a treaty, he produced two commissions from the king, containing powers to treat with the Irish, which Charles had granted without the intervention of any responsible minister.

It was at this time that the republican party began to avow their objects without any disguise, and instead of attacking the faults of the king, seemed fully resolved to destroy monarchy itself. They accused thirteen bishops of high-treason, and endeavoured to exclude all the prelates from seats in the House of Lords; and these dignitaries, seeing the storm that was gathering around them, absented themselves from their duty in the legislature. They also, after much opposition,

passed the celebrated *Remonstrance*,—a kind of appeal to the people, exciting them to devote themselves without reserve to the House of Commons as alone capable of saving them from popery, the bishops, and the king. In the fierce contests which now took place in the Lower House, two famous parties, the roundheads and cavaliers, the whigs and tories of later times, first arose.

Serious riots took place daily in the city and vicinity of the houses of parliament; and Charles, thinking the opportunity favourable, and being somewhat encouraged by his reception during a recent journey to Scotland, had recourse to vigorous measures, which he had not the means of enforcing. He caused a peer and five members of the Commons to be accused of high-treason before the Lords. He went in person to the Lower House to demand and seize the five Commoners, who, however, had been forewarned and made their escape. The next day he repaired to Guildhall, hoping that the citizens and magistrates of London would support him; but here again he was deceived. These proceedings naturally exasperated the multitude, and gave new confidence to the parliament.

A.D. } Charles now withdrew to York; and the queen, threat-
1642. } ened with a public accusation, fled to Holland.

4. THE CIVIL WAR.—Although war appeared to be now the only alternative, the king endeavoured to escape from this terrible necessity by continuing his negotiations with the parliament, and sanctioning two new bills, one excluding the bishops from the House of Lords, the other forbidding the levying of soldiers. But the Commons were not satisfied: they required that the appointments of members of the privy-council and of the great officers of state, should be submitted to the approbation of parliament; that this body should have the control of the education and marriage of the royal children; and that the Commons should at their good pleasure reform the government of the church, and nominate the colonels of militia (for there was no standing army) and the governors of the fortresses. This was almost equivalent to deposing the king. He rejected these propositions, which became law without his assent. The parliament appointed the lieutenants of the counties, giving them the command of the militia, the garrisons, and fortresses, and enjoining them to obey the king's orders, as signified by the two houses of parliament. Charles could no longer hesitate: he summoned his faithful subjects to arms, and raised the royal standard at

Nottingham, on the 22d of August 1642. The day had been dark and stormy, when towards evening the king's flag was spread to the winds; during the night it was torn from the staff by a furious tempest,—an event of melancholy omen for the royal cause.

At this signal of war, most of the nobility embraced the king's party, and rallied round his banner. The episcopalians and Roman-catholics declared in his favour. But the parliament had at their disposal almost all the resources of the nation, while Charles was ill provided with money. The Dutch proved his zealous and active allies; but the Commons had seized the fleet, and the conveyance of succours from foreign countries was attended with great difficulty and danger. However, with the voluntary contributions of his generous followers and the presents of the University of Oxford, Charles managed to collect an army of 14,000 men.

CROMWELL. — The parliamentary force, commanded by Essex, was somewhat larger, and several members of the two houses held commissions in it. Cromwell, having received a captain's commission from the Commons, had raised a regiment of cavalry in his own county, and not long after, his brilliant actions gained him the rank of colonel. With this title, and by his own influence, he raised a thousand horsemen, whom he trained to habits of the most perfect discipline. They were all men who professed to have the fear of God before their eyes, and in whose fanaticism he found an admirable counterpoise to the chivalrous enthusiasm of the nobles composing Charles's army. Previous to the enlistment of these chosen troops, who afterwards became so formidable as Cromwell's "Ironsides," the raw levies of the parliament had proved much inferior to the more experienced royalist soldiers.

5. In 1642, Charles's nephew, Prince Rupert, defeated the parliamentary cavalry at Worcester, and again at Edge Hill. In 1643, the Marquis of Newcastle established the royal authority in the northern counties by the advantages he gained over Lord Fairfax. On the other hand, Waller, one of the best parliamentary generals, captured several cities held by royalist garrisons. Cromwell marched through the eastern counties, and richly deserved the title of lieutenant-general by restraining these districts, which were about to declare against the Commons. But the most remarkable events of this campaign took place in the western provinces. A number of royalist gentry raised an army, and in the space of a

few months gained four signal victories over the parliamentarians. At the same time the king received a reinforcement of 3000 infantry and 1500 cavalry, which the queen brought from Holland. Finding himself at the head of a formidable army, he besieged and captured Bristol, then reckoned the second city in the kingdom. Instead of marching on London, as he was earnestly advised to do, he invested the city of Gloucester, which seemed of easy capture. To succour this important place, which interrupted the communication between the royalist troops in the north and in the south-west, the parliament ordered a levy, which soon amounted to 14,000 men. At their head, Essex raised the siege, and on the 20th September gained near Newbury a most bloody but indecisive victory.

The Scotch, who were in a state of rebellion, without being actually at war, depended neither on the parliament nor on the king. An assembly of the states was there predominant in the midst of feudal anarchy and religious factions. To this body the Commons applied for succour against the king, and a second invasion of England. In return for their exertions the Scotch demanded the union of the two churches, which was promised by a *solemn league and covenant*, binding the interests of the two nations, and stipulating the destruction of episcopacy as the fundamental principle of their compact. On this condition Scotland sent an army of 20,000 men, which was to be paid by the English. Charles, on his side, concluded a treaty with the Irish rebels, and the Marquis of Ormond, at that time governor of Ireland, sent him reinforcements, which the comparatively quiet state of that country enabled him to furnish. Immediately upon this the parliament hastened to proclaim that the king had fought against the Irish only to save appearances, and that he was now sparing the catholics that he might employ them to destroy the protestants.

MARSTON MOOR.—The Irish troops, who landed in Wales, were at first very successful, but they were afterwards surprised and dispersed by the son of Lord Fairfax. Not long after he joined Lesly, now Earl of Leven, the Scotch leader, who had just entered England. The two generals laid siege to York, whither the Marquis of Newcastle had retired, for he was too weak to keep the field, and his dangers were still further increased by the arrival of a new parliamentary army under the Earl of Manchester. Prince Rupert advanced to

the relief of York with an army of 20,000 men. At his approach the siege was raised, and the enemy drew up their forces at Marston Moor, where they awaited the royalists. Contrary to Newcastle's advice, Rupert gave battle. Victo-
 2d July } rious on the right wing, and thinking the result to
 1644 } be the same along the whole line, this prince imprudently pursued the routed enemy. On his return he found his own left wing entirely defeated by Cromwell, who commanded under Manchester. He vainly endeavoured to rally the disordered troops, and was carried away by the torrent of fugitives, with the loss of his artillery, baggage, and nearly half of his army.

6. The consequences of their defeat at Marston were most disastrous to the royalists. The Marquis of Newcastle retired to the continent, the city of York opened its gates, Newcastle was taken by assault, and the king's cause was entirely lost in the north. Foreboding the greatest dangers, Charles now pressed his queen to consult her own safety; and this courageous princess again quitted England, with the hope of procuring assistance for her unfortunate husband.

Notwithstanding these repeated disasters, fortune had not altogether deserted Charles. Being reinforced by part of the garrison of Oxford, he defeated Waller at Copreedy Bridge; and not long after, having surrounded the army which Essex commanded in Cornwall, compelled all his infantry to lay down their arms. But the parliamentarians had their revenge at the second battle of Newbury, where Charles was defeated by Manchester and Waller.

For some time there had been gradually forming in the midst of the Commons a new party, which afterwards received the name of "The Independents." When the presbyterians destroyed the hierarchy and the royal power, they preserved in the church a certain order, and in the state the dignity of king. In the system of the independents, the church was to be without ministers, formularies of faith, discipline, or ceremonies; public worship was reduced to the communication of the Holy Ghost, which every member alike might obtain by prayer. The state was to be organized on similar principles. There were to be neither king nor peers, and no distinction of rank,—in short, entire and perfect equality: such, according to the independents, was the only political form becoming the dignity of man and his natural liberty. This sect counted in its ranks many sincere enthusiasts, and also many hypo-

erites who under the guise of fervour were serving their own ambitious ends. They felt that the support of the army was necessary to the accomplishment of their designs; but as it was generally officered by presbyterians, and as it was impossible to displace them by violence, means were employed to get rid of them by artifice. The result of their manœuvres was the SELF-DENYING ORDINANCE, by which every member of parliament was excluded from civil or military office (April 1645). Thus was the organization and discipline of the army entirely changed, and Cromwell shortly after found himself at the head of a formidable body of enthusiasts.

During this time negotiations were carried on at Uxbridge; but the execution of Archbishop Laud (1645) warned the king that he had little to hope from the moderation of the Commons.

14th June } The battle of Naseby decided the fate of the crown;
1645. } Charles retired to Oxford, and while his troops gradually disbanded, those of the parliament increased in numbers and in confidence. The king finding himself besieged in the university, resolved to trust himself to the protection of the Scottish army; under the impression that they had not entirely lost their attachment to the descendant of their ancient sovereigns. He was mistaken; for instead of favouring his cause, they surrendered him to the parliament on condition of receiving payment of all the arrears which were due to them. Four hundred thousand pounds sterling was the reward of this transaction.

7. The war seemed ended, and the triumph of parliament secure. But this body was near its fall. The army, of which the independents formed a majority, could not behold with indifference the presbyterians masters of the royal person.

A remonstrance which they presented was laid aside without examination, and at the same time it was agreed by a large majority that the king's concessions were a proper ground of settlement. This brought matters to a crisis. On the 6th December 1648, Colonel Pride, with a strong body of soldiers, prevented the entrance to the House of Commons of all who were opposed to the wishes of the army. The "Rump," for by this name was the "purged" parliament called, immediately proceeded to try the king.

TRIAL OF THE KING.—On the 20th of January 1649, he was brought to trial before a commission of judges nominated by parliament, by whom he was condemned to die. Three days intervened between the sentence and its execution; and

in this short interval, neither the earnest intercessions of the ambassadors of France and Holland, nor the remonstrances of the Scotch commissioners, could make any impression upon his stern enemies. On the 30th of January 1649, the king was led to the scaffold erected in front of his own palace of Whitehall. While he was preparing himself for the block, Bishop Juxon said to him, "There is, sir, but one stage more, which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. It will soon carry you a great way. It will carry you from earth to heaven, and there you will find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten—a crown of glory."—"I go," replied his majesty, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place."—"You exchange," rejoined the other, "a temporal for an eternal crown,—a good exchange." Charles having taken off his cloak, delivered the insignia of the garter, usually called the George, to the prelate, pronouncing the word—"Remember." He then laid his neck on the block, and stretching out his hand as a signal, one of the executioners severed his head from his body at a blow, while the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor!" The spectators testified their horror at that sad spectacle by sighs, and tears, and lamentations; the tide of their duty and affection began to return, and each blamed himself either for active disloyalty to his king, or a passive compliance with his destroyers.—The execution of the king was an act of violence not to be justified. The main authors of it have been vindicated on the ground of self-defence, as men acting under the conviction that if they had not destroyed Charles, he would have destroyed them. But such personal motives are no justification for acts of violence and injustice; they should have considered the interests of the nation at large rather than their own fears; and had they done so, they would have seen that by putting the head of the government to death, they would cause greater evils than those which they were so anxious to avoid. In the horror excited at the king's death, all his long misgovernment and innumerable perfidies were forgotten; and a reaction commenced which in little more than eleven years placed England again under the rule of her legitimate sovereign.

EXERCISES.

1. When was the Long Parliament assembled? Whom did the party against the court look on as a special enemy? What were Strafford's objects? How was the attack on him commenced? What constitutional changes were made?

2. What was the nature of the bill of attainder passed by the Commons? How did the king expect to protect Strafford? How did the Lords act? Describe the king's conduct to Strafford in the end. How did Strafford meet his fate?

3. Where did the chief authority now lie? What occurred in Ireland? What was inferred from the Earl of Glamorgan's treaty with the catholics? What were the proceedings of the republican party? To what measures did the king resort against them?

4. What powers did the Commons demand? How did they prepare for the conflict? What occurred at the raising of the king's standard? How were the two parties constituted? What were Cromwell's services at this juncture? What were his troops called?

5. Where were the parliamentary forces defeated? Describe the farther progress of the war? What was taking place in Scotland? Who laid siege to York? Who advanced to its relief? Describe the battle of Marston Moor.

6. What were the consequences of the battle of Marston Moor? What events renewed the hopes of the royalists? Describe the opinions and views of the independents. What was the self-denying ordinance? Where did Charles seek refuge? What was the result of his doing so?

7. What was the conduct of the army? When was the king brought to trial? What was the result of the trial? Give an account of the chief circumstances connected with his execution. On what grounds has the execution been defended?

CHAPTER XXV.

THE COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATE,

A. D. 1649—1660.

The Commonwealth—War in Ireland—Montrose—Prince Charles in Scotland—Battles of Dunbar and Worcester—Dutch War—Expulsion of the Long Parliament—The Protectorate—Richard Cromwell—Tolerant Principles of the Independents—Rise of the Quakers.

1. **AFTER** the execution of Charles, the independents hastened to proclaim a republic. The Lower House, now reduced from 513 members to about eighty, who in reality formed a democratic oligarchy, abolished the House of Peers as useless and dangerous, declared the penalties of high-treason against any who should acknowledge Charles Stewart, known as the Prince of Wales, and to increase the public terror put to death a few royalist chiefs. For some time, the real executive had been vested in the committee of government sitting at Derby House, which was now converted into the Executive Council of State, Bradshaw being president, and Milton the secretary for foreign correspondence. Among the members were Cromwell, Fairfax, Vane, Ludlow, and Whitelock.

The royalists were not the only objects of fear to the House of Commons, which now claimed supreme power, and which, after having put the king to death, kept the privileges of royalty to itself. Its permanence and tyranny offended the principles of the republicans. The parliament enslaved the press, forbade all political discussion, and arrested and sometimes even punished with death those who claimed too boldly the same rights by which the Lower House had obtained its power. This gave rise to a dangerous mutiny in the army; but Cromwell suddenly falling upon the *levellers*, as they were called, speedily reduced them to obedience.

IRISH WAR.—After thus quieting the rebellious spirits among the soldiers, Cromwell turned his attention to the reduction of Ireland, at that time one of the most unhappy countries in the world. From the breaking out of the civil war, large portions of territory remained entirely uncultivated and desolate, and travellers, in crossing them, were forced to carry their provisions, as if they were journeying in the deserts of Africa. A countless number of flocks and herds, the sole wealth of the Irish, had been destroyed, and the misery of the famishing people increased every day. Yet the war still raged. The Marquis of Ormond had revived the spirits of the royalists, and occupied almost all the fortresses in the kingdom. The coast was guarded by a fleet under Prince Rupert. Inchiquin in Munster, the Scotch regiments in Ulster, and the supreme popish council sitting at Kilkenny, with the greater portion of the people, had proclaimed Charles II.; while the parliamentary generals (Monk at Belfast, Coote at Londonderry, Jones at Dublin), were shut up within the walls of the respective cities. To provide funds for the expenses of this expedition, the crown lands were alienated, the property of the deans and chapters was sold, and an extraordinary tax of £120,000 was to be raised monthly. Thus exorbitant imposts were the first fruits of a revolution, of which a few trivial taxes had been the pretext. Cromwell carried on the war with irresistible impetuosity, stormed the cities of Drogheda and Wexford, put the garrisons to the sword, terrified the inhabitants by his politic cruelty, traversed Ireland as a conqueror, or rather as an exterminator, and leaving it depopulated by the slaughter, expulsion, or flight of great numbers of its people, hastened to more glorious exploits in Scotland.

2. MONTROSE.—After Charles's execution, the Marquis of Montrose having received from his son, afterwards Charles II.,

a commission as captain-general of Scotland, landed in the north of that kingdom with 600 Germans, and began to raise recruits. The Scotch, notwithstanding the threats of the Long Parliament, had acknowledged Charles II. ; but they imposed conditions on his return, requiring above all that he should sign the *covenant*, and that he would retain around him none but well intentioned persons. While Charles was hesitating whether he should place himself in the hands of the men who had betrayed his father, the presbyterians, who wished to dictate to the king, took up arms against his lieutenant, and a party of their horse, commanded by Strahan, came suddenly upon him, and cut his followers to pieces. Montrose himself escaped in disguise from the field of battle ; but being afterwards taken prisoner, he was executed at Edinburgh on the 21st of May 1650.

PRINCE CHARLES.—Charles, after some delay, accepted the conditions imposed upon him, and obtained leave to enter Scotland, where, less a king than a prisoner, he was excluded from all public affairs and the deliberations of the council. At the news of these events, Cromwell was recalled from Ireland, and named general of the parliamentary troops in the place of Fairfax, who felt some religious scruples about attacking the Scotch. He immediately set out at the head of 16,000 men, and advanced without obstacle as far as Edinburgh. Lesly, who commanded the troops of the covenanters, was anxious to avoid a general battle, and taking possession of all the difficult passes, reduced Cromwell to such straits, that he is said to have formed the resolution of sending off his foot and artillery by sea, and breaking through at all hazards with his cavalry. But the Scottish clergy opposed the prudent measures of their general ; they forced him to descend into the plain that he might attack the English in their retreat, and

31 Sept. } the consequence was that he suffered a total defeat
1650. } near Dunbar.

This disaster, by reducing the power of the covenanters, led to their treating Charles with greater respect, and he was crowned at Scone on the 1st of January 1651. Being allowed to assume the command of the army in person, he embraced a resolution which his followers deemed worthy of a young prince contending for empire, and advanced by rapid marches into England at the head of 14,000 men. Cromwell promptly followed, and at length, with a force of 30,000 men, overtook him at Worcester, where a most desperate engage-

ment took place on the 3d of September 1651, in which the whole royalist army were either killed or taken prisoners, Charles himself escaping with the greatest difficulty. He passed through many adventures, assumed many different disguises, and after wandering about in imminent peril during forty-one days, escaped in a sloop from Shoreham in Sussex, and arrived safely at Fécamp in Normandy.

3. DUTCH WAR.—The republic now seemed firmly established: Scotland and Ireland were subjugated; and the North American colonies, hitherto faithful to the royal party, submitted to the parliament. Having thus reduced the native dominions to complete obedience, the republicans next resolved to declare war against Holland, which had always favoured the Stewart cause. Conquerors of the Portuguese colonies in the East Indies, the Dutch had soon acquired considerable wealth, which they increased by their industry and enterprising spirit. Having become the merchants of all nations, they had made Holland the centre and depot of the commerce of the world. Their marine was esteemed the first in Europe; and commanded by such men as Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, it might well be thought invincible. But Blake proved a formidable rival to these great sea-captains, and successfully maintained the contest during two years; while Monk, who succeeded him, continued the struggle with equal honour. The Dutch soon felt the great disadvantages arising from the loss of their trade and the total suspension of their fisheries, and were willing to treat for peace; but the parliament gave them an unfavourable answer, being anxious to keep up the navy as a check to the power of the army, now altogether subservient to Cromwell.

While the republic thus defied the power of her enemies on the ocean, she was unable to defend herself against Cromwell. After loading him with honours, the parliament began to dread the excess of his power, and endeavoured to restrain it. But this very assembly was destroyed by him whom it wished to humiliate. Cromwell at first prevailed upon the soldiers, through their officers, to address a petition to parliament, in which, after claiming the arrears of their pay, they called upon that body to make way for a new set of members, and to re-establish liberty on the foundations of a complete representation. The parliament was offended at this proceeding, and named a committee to prepare a bill declaring the penalties of high-treason against those who should present such

petitions in future. But Cromwell immediately hastened to the House of Commons, accompanied by three hundred soldiers, abused the whole body of members, and then drove them all out before him, shut the doors of the chamber, and quietly carried away the keys with him to the palace of Whitehall (20th April 1653).

THE PROTECTORATE.—Judging it prudent and necessary to leave to the nation the shadow of a representative system, but wishing to have an assembly obedient to his wishes, Cromwell, not long after his forcible dissolution of the Long Parliament, named through his officers one hundred and fifty-six deputies, and called upon them, in his quality of captain-general, to take part in the government. This assembly, commonly known as Barebone's parliament, soon fell into such contempt, that at the end of four months it was compelled to resign its authority; and on the 16th of December 1653, the officers of the army, by virtue of the power delegated to them by the deputies whom they themselves had chosen, elected Cromwell *Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland*, and conferred on him the administration of justice, the right of making peace and war, and of concluding alliances. He was now king in everything except the name.

4. This change, which had been long foreseen, encountered very little opposition, and the submission of the three kingdoms to the protector was quietly assented to by the states of Europe. The Dutch solicited peace; and by the treaty of the 5th April 1654, acknowledged the supremacy of the English flag, which was upheld by 160 ships of war,—a maritime force hitherto unparalleled in English history. Ambassadors from the Queen of Sweden, the Elector of Brandenburg, and the Kings of Denmark and Portugal, congratulated Cromwell on his new dignity. The King of Poland and the Waywode of Transylvania claimed his assistance; the one against the Russians, the other against the Turks. When an English squadron had swept the Algerine pirates from the Mediterranean, Genoa sent to thank Cromwell for the security his vessels gave to the commerce of the seas. France and Spain disputed his alliance, which Mazarin obtained by his concessions; but as Cromwell coveted the treasures of the New World, he sent out his fleets against the Spanish colonies without having declared war. Repelled from Saint Domingo, the English became masters of Jamaica. Two years later, Blake

A. D. }
1655. } captured or burnt the Mexican galleons, and in 1658,

the protector, conformably to his treaties with France, was put in possession of the important harbour and fortress of Dunkirk, which Turenne had taken from the Spaniards.

But it must not be supposed that Cromwell's situation was at this time enviable. Perhaps no station, however mean, could be more truly distressful than his, at the very moment when the nation was loading him with congratulations and addresses. One conspiracy was no sooner detected than another rose from its ruins; and, to increase his calamity, he was now taught, upon avowed principles, that his death was not only desirable, but that his assassination would be meritorious. A book was published by Colonel Titus, a man who had formerly been devoted to his cause, entitled "Killing no Murder;" after reading which, Cromwell, it is said, was never seen to smile. All joy was banished from his mind. He found that the grandeur to which he had sacrificed his former peace was only an inlet to fresh disquietudes. The two parliaments which he had summoned proved refractory; the House of Lords, which he had tried to establish as a barrier between himself and the lower house, was a failure; and now by the mere force of circumstances Cromwell found himself compelled to rule by the sword. At last a tertian ague relieved him from a life of care and anxiety. He died on the 3d of September 1658, the anniversary of the battles of Dunbar and Worcester, and the day which he always considered the most fortunate in his life. He was in the sixtieth year of his age, and had held the reins of government nine years.

RICHARD CROMWELL inherited all his father's titles, but did not possess the abilities necessary for the maintenance of his authority. He was an indolent young man, simple in his manners, unused to public business, and fond of the charms of private life. Despised by the soldiery, he vainly sought support from parliament, and failing in this, resigned his ^{April} office. His brother Henry, a man of more talent and ^{1659.} of firmer character, was deprived of his dignity of governor of Ireland, and the family of Cromwell fell back into its original obscurity.

5. With the accession of the independents to power began a period of almost universal toleration, which lasted until the Restoration. Writers, in advance of the opinions of many who live even in our days, advocated toleration not only to all forms of Christianity, but to every other religion as well as

the Christian; even infidels, persons without religion, were not to be punished. The reverend Roger Williams, the founder of the settlement of Providence in the United States, was probably the first who formed a church in which universal toleration was an article of creed and practice.

The Quakers, who were originally very different from the present meek and quiet sect, owe their origin to George Fox, a shoemaker of Drayton, in Leicestershire. At the age of nineteen, he imagined he heard the Lord calling him out of the world; and in obedience to this heavenly voice, he commenced a wandering life, reading and expounding the Scriptures in accordance with what he supposed to be the illumination of the Holy Spirit. To attract attention, he appears to have adopted those singularities of outward demeanour by which his followers are distinguished. He would not take off his hat to high or low, used *thee* and *thou* in conversation, never bowed to any one, and discarded those harmless salutations of *good morrow* and *good evening* for the quakerly equivalent of *farewell*. He soon got into trouble by disturbing the public religious services, and interrupting the clergymen. Neither the stocks nor imprisonment served to cool his zeal, which found many imitators among the female sex. Fox himself wore a dress of leather, probably because his trade furnished him with the materials; while some of his followers at times looked upon all clothing as a superfluity. They often resisted the magistrates, and opened their shops on the Lord's day.

There were also Millenarians, or Fifth-monarchy Men, who believed in the immediate coming of Christ to reign in person for 1000 years; the Ranters, who held that a main part of religion consisted in vociferation and bodily excitement; the Muggletonians, Behmenists, Vanists, and a host of others.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the proceedings of the independents immediately after the king's death? What eminent men were connected with the council of state? Who were the Levellers? Describe the state of Ireland. How did Cromwell act there?

2. Who received a commission as captain-general of Scotland? What negotiations proceeded between the presbyterians and Prince Charles? What was the fate of Montrose? Mention the chief incidents of Cromwell's campaign in Scotland. What course did Charles adopt? What occurred at Worcester?

3. What followed on the reduction of the empire to obedience? What took place between the republican government and the Dutch? How did Cromwell increase his power? What did he do in the House of Com-

mons? What was Barebone's parliament? What dignity was Cromwell at length raised to?

4. What nation solicited peace from the protector? What distant countries vied with each other for his favour? What victories and acquisitions were gained under his government? Did he live a happy life? Mention a circumstance which shook his nerves. When did he die? What occurred to his sons?

5. What was the main effect of the accession of the independents to power? What was Roger Williams remarkable for? How did the quakers of that day differ from those of the present? Who was George Fox? Mention some other sects which then arose.

CHAPTER XXVI.

CHARLES II., A. D. 1660—1685.

The Restoration—Act of Uniformity—Fire of London—Persecution in Scotland—The Cabal Ministry—The Triple Alliance—The Test Act—Dutch War—The Popish Plot—Habeas Corpus Act—Whig and Tory—Whig Conspiracies—Executions of Russell and Sidney.

1. THE RESTORATION.—After much intrigue among the different parties in the state, a new parliament assembled at Westminster on the 25th April 1660, the peers at the same time resuming their rights. General Monk, who had commanded the army in Scotland, and who was ready to do any thing to promote his own interests, now declared his intentions with regard to the exiled monarch, and by a solemn vote of both houses Charles II. was proclaimed king. He made his public entry into London on the 29th of May, the anniversary of his birth, amid the transports of the great majority of the population.

Charles appeared to deserve the love of his subjects by the wisdom and moderation of his early days of sovereignty. Monk received the title of Duke of Albemarle, and the faithful Hyde, created Earl of Clarendon, was made chancellor and prime minister. The council was composed of respectable men, selected indifferently from presbyterians and royalists. A general amnesty was proclaimed; and when the parliament, which was to regulate the exceptions, called for too great a number of victims, Charles moderated their zeal for vengeance: none but the regicide judges were excepted from his free pardon, and of the eighty who still survived, only ten suffered on the scaffold.

ACT OF UNIFORMITY.—The nation approved of their punishment and of the disbanding of the army—the instrument of their tyranny; but the question of episcopacy soon became a subject of division between the monarch and a portion of his subjects. Charles re-established prelacy, with certain restrictions limiting the episcopal jurisdiction, and confirmed universal liberty of conscience, which he had promised in the *Declaration of Breda*. In the new parliament, the covenant was
 A. D. }
 1662. } condemned to be burnt, and an *act of uniformity* declared that every minister ought to receive episcopal ordination, approve of the Book of Common Prayer, and swear canonical obedience. This measure, which received a tardy assent from the king, rekindled the flames of religious dissent. Two thousand ministers renounced their livings rather than subscribe to an act consecrating the triumph of a church they had long kept down, and which, now triumphant in its turn, desired to bring them under the yoke of its ceremonies and doctrines. After parliament had been prorogued, Charles, in a declaration of tolerance, promised to alleviate in some degree the rigour of this act of uniformity; but when the parliament re-assembled, it refused to sanction such an indulgence.

This body, as zealous for the crown as for episcopacy, had granted the king considerable supplies, although they were scarcely sufficient for the charges of the government. Instead of expending them economically, Charles squandered them in foolish dissipation; and in his indigence, making a traffic of the national honour, he sold Dunkirk to France for £350,000
 A. D. }
 1665-67. } sterling. A ruinous war against Holland increased his necessities and the discontent of the people. About the same time, the city of London, which the year before had lost 100,000 of its inhabitants by the plague, was almost destroyed by a terrible fire. The Mansion-house, Saint Paul's Cathedral, eighty-nine churches, and thirteen thousand two hundred private houses—in all six hundred streets—were utterly ruined by this disaster.

2. PERSECUTION IN SCOTLAND.—The feeling against episcopacy was far stronger in Scotland than in England, yet the king was ready to enforce it there, though he had himself taken the covenant when he sought refuge among the Scots. He used to observe that “Presbyterianism was not a religion for a gentleman,” and on the ground of so thoughtless a remark, he was ready to suppress the conscientious belief of a whole people. The presbyterians sent James Sharpe, an able member

of their own body, to attend to their interests in London, but he proved treacherous, and was gained over by the court, returning to Scotland as Archbishop of St Andrews. It was soon apparent that nothing but force could establish even the outward form of episcopacy. The religious persecution which ensued was the cause of an insurrection. The people forsook the churches and the ministers nominated by the bishops, to follow their own pastors, who celebrated divine worship in barns or in the fields. Severe penalties were enacted against all who attended conventicles, as these meetings were called, and to enforce more rigorous measures, Sir James Turner was sent into the west with an armed force. Some covenanters, however, fell upon him suddenly and made him prisoner, and, following up their success, resolved to march to Edinburgh; but they were attacked and defeated at Rullion Green, near the Pentland Hills: fifty were left dead on the field, and 130 were made prisoners, forty of whom perished by the hand of the executioner. In order to extort confession, many were put to the torture; and to Archbishop Sharpe belongs the infamous notoriety of having introduced a new instrument of torture called "the boots," in which the leg of the victim was crushed by a wedge driven in between the bone and an iron case or boot.

It may be said that during this unhappy reign religious persecution grew fiercer every day in Scotland, where, oppressed by Lauderdale, the king's commissioner, the covenanters revolted in 1679, after murdering Sharpe, the unpopular archbishop of Saint Andrews. Although successful against Graham of Claverhouse at the battle of Loudon Hill, they were completely defeated at Bothwell Bridge, on the Clyde, by the Duke of Monmouth, the king's illegitimate son.

3. After Clarendon's fall, which was the result of a court-intrigue, the king intrusted the government of England to five corrupt ministers, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale—whose initials formed the word *Cabal*, the title by which this infamous ministry is best known. Charles was suspected of a secret leaning towards popery, which his brother, the Duke of York, openly professed. This circumstance, combined with the discontent caused by his prodigality, had changed the liberal disposition of the Commons, who began to have recourse to the ancient practice of resistance and economy. Charles's penury, the advice of his ministers, and his inclination for absolute power, instigated him to adopt means

for freeing himself from the control of parliament. He was persuaded that the royal authority was in danger unless he made it independent, and in that he could succeed only by a close alliance with France, which offered to support him with her treasures and her armies. Although a member of the

A.D. } *Triple Alliance* concluded at the Hague between England,
1668. } Sweden, and Holland, to check the ambition of Louis XIV., he suddenly changed his policy, and formed a secret treaty with the King of France, from whom he received money, and in the war which this prince declared, two years

A.D. }
1672. } after, against Holland, the English and French fleets acted in concert against that of the States. The new parliament, which Charles's necessities obliged him to summon, voted but very trifling supplies, and among other conditions passed the famous *Test Act*, compelling every public officer to swear, in addition to the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, that he did not believe in the doctrine of transubstantiation. Thus all Romanists were excluded from employment, and even the Duke of York was compelled to resign the command of the fleet.

Charles had now become weary of the war against Holland, and a treaty was entered into, by which it was agreed that the conquests on each side should be restored, that the honour of the flag should be ceded to England, and that 800,000 crowns should be paid by the Dutch as an indemnification for the expenses of the war. He did not however break off all connexion with Louis. Jealous of the progress and glory of this prince, who contended alone against a host of enemies, the English desired to increase the number, and pressed the king to join the European coalition. Seduced by the offer of immense supplies, Charles appeared to yield to the public wishes: he married the Princess Mary, daughter of the Duke of York, to the Prince of Orange, and began to make preparations for the war against France. But at one time diverted by the love of pleasure, at another by the specious promises of Louis XIV., he hesitated to declare his intentions; and while he delayed from day to day, the English learnt with surprise

A.D. } that by the treaty of Nimeguen the King of France had
1678. } dictated peace to all Europe.

4. THE POPISH PLOT.—The violence exercised against the Nonconformists (a term including all who would not acknowledge episcopacy), the general belief that the king's relations with Louis tended to the re-establishment of absolute power

and of the Romish religion, the Duke of York's conversion to popery, and the fear of having one day a papist for their king, began to alienate the affections of the people from the throne. The most dangerous enemy of the court was Ashley Cooper, formerly a member of the Cabal, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury and chancellor of England; a despotic minister but a factious subject, joining all parties but adhering to none; an enthusiastic advocate of the royal authority in public, and yet constantly the secret leader of the opposition. He hated the Duke of York and the catholics. To ruin them he took advantage of the prevailing disposition of the public mind, and, by the instrumentality of an impudent impostor named Titus Oates, he was enabled to lay before parliament an account of a pretended *popish plot*. Oates declared that the Jesuits had determined to assassinate the king, and that the crown would be offered to the Duke of York, on condition of his receiving it as a gift from the pope, in default of which he was to perish like his brother; that the great fire of 1666 was the work of the Jesuits, who, already enriched by pillage, were planning another fire and general massacre, after which their dominion would be established throughout the kingdom. All these assertions, alike destitute of truth and probability, were greedily believed by the excited people. Oates was summoned before the two houses of parliament. Blinded by their prejudices and by Shaftesbury's artifices, they declared that the popish recusants were engaged in a diabolical plot against the king, his government, and religion. The impostor was rewarded by apartments in the palace of Whitehall, and a pension of £1200. To the old test oath the parliament added an additional clause on the necessity of abhorring popery as idolatry, and violently carried on the trials instituted on the denunciations of Oates and two other informers, whom the hope of gain had now brought to his assistance. Coleman, secretary to the Duchess of York, was arrested, and his papers were seized, among which was found an extensive correspondence with his friends on the continent. The documents displayed a great zeal for the Romish faith, but there were no traces of a conspiracy. He was nevertheless condemned to death, and his execution was followed by that of many Jesuits, undoubtedly not less zealous for their church, but not less innocent of the crime of treason.

5. This pretended conspiracy concealed a deep-laid scheme against the Duke of York, whom the leaders of the popular or

country party wished to exclude from the succession to the crown, desiring to substitute in his place the illegitimate Monmouth, whom no qualities of a superior order recommended to the public estimation. The king having dissolved the parliament, which, during its existence of eighteen years, had insensibly passed from an absolute devotion to the court to a spirit of resistance and even of hostility, another was summoned, in which, however, the enemies of the Duke of York were still more numerous. In spite of Charles's A.D. } moderation, for he had proposed to limit by solemn
1679. } guarantees the authority of the crown in case it should descend to a Roman-catholic, a bill of exclusion was introduced in the Commons to the effect that after the king's death the crowns of England and Ireland should belong to the nearest heir, the Duke of York excepted; that his presence in either of the kingdoms would be an act of high-treason, and that all who maintained his title should be treated as rebels and traitors. This bill was presented to the king in the form of an address by the Commons, who also gave him other causes of displeasure. To deprive the court of a powerful means of influencing the representatives, they excluded from the Lower House all persons holding any kind of lucrative office: they also ventured to make a bold attack on the king by declaring the illegality of a standing army and even of his own body-guards. Finally, by the famous bill of *habeas corpus*, which has since become the safeguard of individual liberty, they prevented all illegal imprisonments. The dissolution of this parliament increased the animosity of the contending factions, which now began to be known by the distinctive names of *Whig* and *Tory*. Two new parliaments, in which the whigs had a majority, sanctioned the most extreme measures, and passed bill after bill, either denouncing imprisonment or death against the papists, or checking the royal prerogative.

6. Despairing of being able to govern with the aid of such a body, which became daily more uncompromising and unmanageable, the king resolved not to call another parliament. As he was now reduced to his private income, and to a pension of £100,000, which he received from Louis XIV., Charles, formerly so prodigal, was constrained to become economical, in order to preserve, or rather to acquire, independence. He so far succeeded that at his death the fruits of his savings amounted to 90,000 guineas. The unexpected firmness he displayed overawed the factions: he ought, how-

ever, to have been satisfied with victory, and not to have sought vengeance: but giving way to his own resentment, as well as to the suggestions of the court-party, so long oppressed by the whigs, he belied his habitual moderation by severe retaliation. One College was convicted and hung at Oxford on an absurd accusation; and the charter of the city of London was forfeited, because the grand jury threw out a bill charging Shaftesbury with high-treason. This severity and the violation of the forms of law led to the formation of the A.D. } Ryehouse Plot. The principal leaders in this at-
1683. } tempt were the Duke of Monmouth, who aspired to the throne; Shaftesbury, who had been recently tried for projecting a rebellion, but acquitted through want of proof; Algernon Sidney, a republican in feeling and upon principle; the Earl of Essex; and Lord William Russell, an amiable and virtuous nobleman, who, remaining attached to the established constitution, looked only to the exclusion of the Duke of York and the reformation of the national grievances. They all differed in their views, motives, and object, but united in the scheme of promoting a general insurrection; a proceeding which some of them, in their republican fervour, regarded as not only necessary, but even legitimate. They were betrayed by one of their subordinate confederates; Essex died by his own hand in prison; Russell and Sidney perished on the scaffold; Shaftesbury escaped to the continent, and ended his days in exile; and Monmouth was pardoned, but banished from the kingdom. Henceforward everything yielded to the authority of the king and of his brother, who, restored to his post of high admiral, exercised an all-prevailing influence. When he felt his end approaching, the king, at his brother's desire, solemnly acknowledged himself to be an adherent of the church of Rome, the rites of which were administered to him by a priest of the name of Huddleston. Charles died on the 6th of February 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, having reigned thirty-six years, reckoning from his father's death, or twenty-four from the time of his own restoration. His brother, the Duke of York, tranquilly succeeded to the vacant throne.

EXERCISES.

1. When was Charles II. proclaimed king? Who was made a duke for helping him to the throne? What were the first proceedings of the government? What was the nature of the act of uniformity? How did parliament behave to the king? How did he behave to the nation? What happened to the city of London?

2. What was the thoughtless remark on which the king acted in Scotland? What was the conduct of James Sharpe when he was sent to London? What did the presbyterians of Scotland do? What happened to Sir James Turner? What occurred at Rullion Green? Describe the conduct of the Scottish government to the covenanting prisoners. Who was murdered by the covenanters?

3. Who formed the Cabal? What caused the recommencement of parliamentary resistance? What was the conduct of Charles in relation to the Triple Alliance? What was the Test-Act? What course did the king follow as to Louis the Fourteenth?

4. What alienated the affections of the people from the court? What was the character of Lord Shaftesbury? Who was Titus Oates? Give an account of what was done about the popish plot.

5. What plot was formed against the Duke of York? In what temper did the parliament end? For what object was a bill of exclusion introduced in the Commons? What other measures did the new parliament take against the king? What party names had their origin at this period?

6. What resolution did the king come to on the subject of parliaments? Who were the leaders of the plot against him? What was the result of it? What did Charles do when he felt his end approaching? When did he die?

CHAPTER XXVII.

JAMES II. TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE REVOLUTION, A. D. 1685—1688.

James II.—Rebellions of Argyle and Monmouth—The Bloody Assize—James's despotic Measures—Illegal Suspension of the Test Act—The Dispensing Power—Attack upon the Church—Proceedings of the High Commission—Declaration of Indulgence—The Universities—Scotland—Second Declaration of Indulgence—Remonstrance of the Bishops.

1. THE first acts of the new king's reign indicated moderation and wisdom: his application to business, his economy, and his promises to respect the laws and religion of the state, imposed silence on his enemies. The new parliament testified their confidence in the monarch, and granted him the same revenue as had been enjoyed by his predecessor. It was at this time that the Dukes of Argyle and Monmouth, who had been banished in the preceding reign, returned for the purpose of raising an insurrection. Argyle landed in Scotland, where, supported by his numerous vassals and connexions, he flattered himself with the prospect of a general rising: Monmouth landed in the west of England, where his mere presence and the popularity of his name were deemed sufficient to effect a

revolution. But the hopes of both were disappointed. James, assisted by the parliaments of the two kingdoms, took the most vigorous measures. Argyle was defeated at Dumbarton, Monmouth at Sedgemoor, and both were taken prisoners. Monmouth's youth and amiable qualities, as well as his descent from the late king, held out hopes of pardon; but James was inexorable, and they were both executed, the one at Edinburgh and the other at London. This severity, more just than necessary, was perhaps still more contrary to sound policy than to humanity. And yet it was but the prelude to more barbarous executions. James would not pardon any of the participators in this rebellion, and two men, whose names have been branded with eternal infamy, Colonel Kirke, and Judge Jeffreys, afterwards rewarded with the title of chancellor, seconded his thirst for vengeance with frightful eagerness. The memory of this period, known as the Bloody Assize, is still fresh among the descendants of Jeffreys' victims, and local traditions still point to the scenes of many of the foulest atrocities of this month of terror. There are spots which even now the peasantry fear to pass after sunset.

Very early in his reign the king became unpopular and suspected by his subjects on account of his favour for the Roman-catholics, which he began to exhibit by relieving them from the laws that had been enacted against them. It must not be supposed, however, that his toleration of, or even partiality for, the members of his own church caused the calamities under which he suffered. He was a Roman-catholic when he ascended the throne, and yet he was welcomed by the very people who afterwards acted against him. His brother had been opposed in parliament; but the first parliament of King James was the most loyal that had met since the days of Elizabeth. They showed an unusual degree of confidence in voting to him for life a revenue equivalent to what his brother enjoyed at the time of his death, and immediately at his desire adding farther taxes for the support of a navy. They must naturally have expected that the king would insist on following the observances of his own religion, and also that he would endeavour to procure toleration for all its followers. It was not so much the things he desired as the way in which he endeavoured to accomplish them that frightened the people. In fact, he attempted all along to be what no king could be consistently with the law of England—a despotic monarch, whose will was law. Before his parliament met, and of course

before they could grant supplies, he insisted on levying customs duties by his own prerogative. His ministers recommended him merely to charge the amount against the merchants in the meantime, and not forcibly to levy the money till he had the authority of parliament; but he would not listen to a proposal which seemed to place a limit on his power. Then when he met the parliament, he told them pretty plainly, that so long as they agreed to do what he desired he would consult them, but no longer.

The king had little cause indeed to complain of the parliament, for their very first act was to settle tonnage, poundage, and other duties on him for life. But when they re-assembled towards the end of the year, and James claimed the power of keeping Romish officers in his service, they ventured to dissent from his views, and were dismissed in anger. The king had declared that the conduct of the militia at the time of Monmouth's insurrection had shown that they were not to be depended upon; that he had therefore been obliged to employ regular troops; and that having benefited by their services, he neither could nor would part with them. To strengthen his position he procured from the judges a solemn confirmation of the power he claimed. This arose on a feigned action brought against Sir E. Hales, a recent convert to popery, for a penalty incurred by accepting a military command without taking the oath prescribed by the test act. Hales pleaded a dispensation, which the judges held to be lawful; but their judgment was as hurtful to James as the decision in favour of ship-money had been to his father.

2. The test act passed in 1673, besides the oaths of supremacy and others, required that every holder of office in the country should abjure the doctrine of transubstantiation. This was of course intended to prevent Roman-catholics from holding office; but the people began to see with alarm that, without getting the act repealed by parliament, the king gave several Roman-catholics commissions in the army. No king of England had possessed the power of making laws; but it was part of the royal prerogative to pardon those who were guilty of transgressing the laws. Through means of this power the king thought he might virtually abolish the test act, by pardoning all Roman-catholics who held offices without complying with the test. At the same time, as he was the head of the church, he might appoint Roman-catholics to ecclesiastical offices, and might pardon them for any breaches

of the law which they committed in holding such offices. It was necessary, however, that he should get the courts of law to co-operate in his projects, and the lawyers generally held that the power of pardoning was merely intended for mitigating the harshness of the law in individual cases, and not for abrogating it altogether. Some of the judges said that they would not join in the king's proposal, and as he had unfortunately the power of displacing them, he said, "I am determined to have twelve judges who are all of my mind in this matter." To this, Jones, one of the independent judges, answered, "Your majesty may find twelve *judges* of your mind, but hardly twelve *lawyers*."

The first efforts made to transfer the benefices of the Church of England to Roman-catholics were confined to clergymen who changed their faith in subserviency to the king. James granted warrants to enable these clergymen to enjoy their benefices, although they had changed their religion. But he was resolved to do more in ecclesiastical matters than he could accomplish in politics. According to the constitution, as the ecclesiastical part of it had been fixed at the Reformation, the king was the temporal head of the church. It was difficult to say what precise power this gave him, but he was resolved to try if it might not enable him to hand over the church establishment with all its wealth and power to his own religion, which he counted the only true one. For this purpose he appointed a court of ecclesiastical commissioners, and at the head of a tribunal which was to deal with the clergy and religion, he placed Jeffreys, now lord chancellor, a man with so little religion that he could scarcely speak without blaspheming, and with so little decorum, that he hurt his health by attempting, when intoxicated, to climb naked to the top of a lamp-post in the open street to drink the king's health. Mr Macaulay says, "The words in which the jurisdiction of these officers was described were loose, and might be stretched to any extent. All colleges and grammar-schools, even those founded by the liberality of private benefactors, were placed under the authority of the new board. All who depended for bread on situations in the church or in academical institutions, from the primate down to the youngest curate, from the vice-chancellors of Oxford and Cambridge down to the humblest pedagogue who taught Corderius, were at the royal mercy. If any one of those many thousands was suspected of doing or saying anything distasteful to the government, the commis-

sioners might cite him before them. In their mode of dealing with him they were fettered by no rules. They were themselves at once both prosecutors and judges. The accused party was furnished with no copy of the charge. He was examined and cross-examined. If his answers did not give satisfaction, he was liable to be suspended from his office, to be ejected from it, to be pronounced incapable of holding any preferment in future. If he were contumacious, he might be excommunicated, or, in other words, deprived of all civil rights, and imprisoned for life. He might also, at the discretion of the court, be loaded with all the costs of the proceeding by which he had been reduced to beggary. No appeal was given. The commissioners were directed to execute their office notwithstanding any law which might be, or might seem to be, inconsistent with these regulations."

3. It was one of the preparations of James for the projects which he had in view to create a standing army subject to his sole command. Hitherto the principal national forces consisted of volunteers or of the city train-bands, and others who were compelled by law to serve for a limited time, but who were not soldiers by profession. Mercenary troops were sometimes hired; but the House of Commons had a strong check over them, as it granted or withheld the money with which they were paid. Moreover, there was no mutiny act, and no martial law to compel soldiers to observe discipline and fulfil their duties. They were only liable, like any other persons who took wages for services, to be prosecuted if they neglected to perform their proper functions. These circumstances rendered it difficult to embody an army.

DECLARATION OF INDULGENCE.—Having secured, as he believed, a complying bench, James published his celebrated Declaration of Indulgence on the 7th April 1687. It had an appearance of fairness and liberality, for it annulled all laws against nonconformists, and protected the protestant dissenters from penalties as well as the Roman-catholics. The dissenters had been subjected to continual and harassing persecution, and it would not have been a cause of great wonder had they heartily accepted of the indulgence: indeed, had they been thoughtless men, they would have greatly applauded the generosity of their king. They of course took advantage of the relaxation of the law, and some of them sided with the court; but as a body they would not give their approval to a step that appeared to be so dangerous to civil liberty as the

abrogation of acts of parliament by the mere royal will. James thought that the dissenters would have been unable to resist the temptation of such a relaxation. On the other hand, knowing little of human nature, he could not conceive how the party who were always supporting the divine right of kings could oppose him. The established clergy and the universities had repeatedly told him that his power was derived from God, to whom alone he was responsible, and that it was not morally lawful for any subject to resist him. He did not remember the difference between enforcing such doctrines and suffering under them, when he believed that the clergy and the universities would at once submit to them in practice. He tried Cambridge first.

4. THE UNIVERSITIES.—It had been settled by act of parliament that no one should obtain a degree in either university without first taking the protestant oaths. A royal letter was sent directing the university of Cambridge to admit a Benedictine monk as Master of Arts. The monk of course would not take the oaths, and the university refused to give him the degree. The vice-chancellor was cited before the high commission and deprived of his office.

In March 1687, the president of Magdalen College, Oxford, died. The king, by a royal letter, required the fellows to elect Anthony Farmer, a Roman-catholic; but, though they addressed the king with great reverence, they chose another person. The fellows were cited before the high commission, and as it appeared that there were other objections to Farmer besides his being a Roman-catholic, the king named another candidate. The fellows had, however, made their election, and they adhered to it. A commission of visitors was sent to the university, by whom the person named by the king was installed in form, though the person chosen by the college was counted its real head. The porter would not even open the door, a blacksmith could not be found who would break it open, and none of the ordinary servants of the university would perform their functions for the intruder. To carry out his plans, James condemned all the fellows to expulsion; and, lest any gentleman possessed of church patronage should give them livings, they were declared incapable of holding church preferment. By this act, Oxford, the orderly and quiet centre of high church loyalty and passive obedience, became like a manufacturing town in open insurrection, and every one, from the decorous heads of colleges down to the youngest

student, showed contumely to those whom they considered intruders.

It was just four years earlier that the same university had published a decree "against certain pernicious books and damnable doctrines." These doctrines were generally in favour of the right to resist arbitrary and tyrannical princes, and the decree enforced the principle of passive submission to all ordinances of monarchs, and positively required "that this submission and obedience is to be clear, absolute, and without any exception of any state or order of men." The king was resolved to enforce these doctrines against themselves to the utmost, and Magdalen College became a popish seminary. It is curious to observe, that though James was professedly bringing England under the papal hierarchy, the pope, who was a man of sense, neither aided him nor approved of his conduct. He knew what it was for a religious majority to domineer over a minority; but he saw how impossible it was that a small body of Roman-catholics, even though the king was one of them, should lord it over twenty times as many protestants, with the wealth, the rank, and the intelligence of the country among them. It was the Jesuits, whose support of Catholicism was not always of a kind to please the papal court, who chiefly urged on and aided the king in his operations.

5. SCOTLAND.—The king's proceedings in Scotland tended to strengthen the suspicion that he did not intend to tolerate all sects, but to establish his own religion and oppress the rest whenever he became sufficiently powerful. He desired the parliament of Scotland to repeal all the acts against Roman-catholics, leaving the cruel laws against presbyterians untouched. He afterwards so far modified his desire as to admit of a limited toleration to the moderate presbyterians worshipping in their private houses. He appears to have considered the presbyterians of Scotland more inimical to his projects and more offensive to his person than the dissenters of England. They had indeed been during his brother's lifetime in open rebellion—he had himself seen them subjected to the torture of the boot and the thumbikins. Then they had become peculiarly obnoxious to himself by raising riots in Edinburgh, and attacking some statesmen who, to gratify their master, had changed their religion. James was both mortified and incensed to find that though he used every available influence, and dismissed minister after minister, the par-

liament of Scotland would not pass such a measure as he desired. He then had recourse to his prerogative, and issued a proclamation the very beginning of which justified the fears of those who charged him with a design to undermine the liberties of the kingdom. It was in these words: "By our sovereign authority, prerogative royal, and absolute power, which all our subjects are to observe without reserve." It proceeded to declare, that the moderate presbyterians should be tolerated in the celebration of worship in their private houses; but it laid down, as the king's "royal will and pleasure, that field conventicles, and such as preach or exercise at them, shall be prosecuted according to the utmost severity of our laws." The indulgence to the Roman-catholics was by the same document made unlimited; they were relieved from all disabilities, and declared to be entitled to hold any office in the state. No one who saw such a document could believe that the king sincerely desired a complete and equal toleration.

On the 7th of April 1688, the king issued a new declaration of indulgence. It professed the reasonable doctrine, that offices and emoluments should be given as the reward of services, fidelity, and merit, instead of being given for taking an oath in favour of a particular religion. Still it was believed that this only covered projects of arbitrary power, which was immediately confirmed, for all the clergy were ordered to read it from their pulpits, so that the very act of promulgating it was one of despotic authority. In this light it was regarded by the dissenters, the greater and more eminent part of whom offered to take the side of the established clergy, whom they advised not to read the declaration. A resolution to that effect was prepared and speedily signed by eighty-five of the London clergymen. The king's order was only obeyed in four churches within London, and in these it was received rather with scorn than with respect by the congregations. In the meantime seven of the bishops signed a dutiful petition to the king, pointing out and gently chiding his illegal course, and praying that they might not be compelled to read the declaration.

EXERCISES.

1. How did James's reign begin? Give an account of the acts and fate of Monmouth and Argyle. How did the king become unpopular? What was the method of proceeding that alarmed the people for their liberties? What reasons did James assign for keeping Romish officers? What decision did the judges give?

2. How did he try to abrogate the test act? What was his saying as to

the judges? What was the answer of Judge Jones? How did he begin to transfer the benefices of the English church to Roman-catholics? What was the nature of the court of ecclesiastical commissioners?

3. What were James's views as to an army? What had been the nature of the national force before his time? When was the declaration of indulgence published? What was its nature? How did the dissenters behave in regard to it?

4. How did the king proceed towards the University of Cambridge? What did he require the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, to do? How did they act? What was the result of these proceedings? What view did the pope take of them?

5. What was the character of the king's proceedings in Scotland? How did he distinguish between the Roman-catholics and the presbyterians? What was the nature of the new declaration of indulgence? What order was issued to the clergy? How did they receive it? What did the seven bishops do?

CHAPTER XXVIII.

JAMES II. FROM THE COMMENCEMENT TO THE COMPLETION OF THE REVOLUTION, A. D. 1688—1689.

Trial of the Bishops—Birth of the Prince of Wales—Condition of the Army—The Prince of Orange—State of Ireland—Lillibulero—Desertion of the Courtiers—Prince George of Denmark—Flight of the King—Disturbances in London—The Convention—Declaration of Rights—Election of William III. and Queen Mary—Scotland.

1. **TRIAL OF THE BISHOPS.**—The remonstrance of the bishops may be said to have been the turning point of the Revolution. The king was furious; he confronted the prelates and brow-beat them; and, finally, they were committed to the Tower. Their progress thither was a species of triumph. All London was up in their favour, and even the soldiers sent to guard them treated them with respect and reverence. On the 15th of June, the bishops were brought to trial, accused of what is called in English law "a misdemeanour" in signing and presenting the petition. Except that of Charles I., this was the most important trial that had taken place in England. It was completed on the 29th of the month, when the jury sat up all night, and many other people sleeplessly waited for their decision. They found a verdict of not guilty, and the event was celebrated with public rejoicings.

Another event, from which James and his supporters had augured the best results, only served to hasten his destruction. He had two daughters by his first wife, the Princess Mary and

the Princess Anne, but hitherto there was no issue by his second marriage. Towards the end of the year 1687, it was rumoured that the queen might soon be expected to bear a child. Although not a matter to excite wonder or doubt, yet there appeared to be something suspicious about it at this juncture, and the opponents of the king shook their heads. Their doubts were increased by the conduct of some of the catholics, who predicted that the infant would be a son, and that divine providence had so ordered it, that a catholic heir might be born to the crown. Between nine and ten o'clock in the morning of the 10th of June the child was born, and it was a boy. The event occurred a month before the time when it was expected. Several people were not invited to be present, who it was thought ought to have been there; as, for instance, the Princess Anne, whose hopes of succeeding to the crown were much affected by this event. These omissions were imprudent. There can be no doubt that the child was legitimate; but many persons not only suspected then, but long firmly believed, that he was spurious.

The king now saw that the country was likely to rise against him, and that it was time to try how far the army could be relied on. He found that the troops were in general zealous protestants, and that very few of them would aid him in his catholic projects. Kirke, who had been an instrument of his tyranny against the Monmouth rebels, revolted at the idea of deserting Protestantism, and said he was under an old promise to the Bey of Tangier, that if he ever changed his religion he would become a Mahometan.

2. THE PRINCE OF ORANGE.—People now began to look towards Holland and the Prince of Orange. He was the grandson of Charles I., and was married to the eldest daughter of James II., who, if the new child were spurious, as the public in general believed, would be the next heir to the crown. Many of the disaffected frequented the prince's court at the Hague, and they had often urged him to make a descent on England, where they assured him of an enthusiastic reception. The prince kept together a considerable body of troops, and made preparations to act when the right time should come, but he was a man of a cautious, cool disposition, who would not rashly commit himself. It was on the same day when the bishops were acquitted, that a letter inviting William to come over to the relief of the English people was signed by several men of the first rank and influence in the country, and trans-

mitted to the Hague. On the 19th of October, the prince set sail with about 12,000 troops. He was driven back by a storm, and it was not until the 5th of November that he landed safely with his troops at Torbay in Devonshire. Some statesmen feared, that however much the English people might be discontented by the conduct of their sovereign, their national pride would be outraged if their country were overrun by a foreign force. All the troops of the prince, however, were not foreigners: there were many Englishmen among them; and it so happened that the force to which James had recourse, consisting chiefly of Irish catholics, was looked at with more jealousy even than the armament of William.

3. IRELAND.—The Irish had undoubtedly suffered much injustice at the hands of the English government—injustice not uncommon, since it is almost always offered by the conquerors to the conquered. In many places they had been driven out of their lands and replaced by colonists from England. These colonists had now, however, been there for a generation or two, and to have turned their descendants out would have been repeating the same species of injustice. James and his followers had no design of readjusting the rights of property; but the native Irish being all catholics, while the greater part of the colonists were protestants, they showed a disposition to encourage the former at the expense of the latter. An oppressed people are very dangerous when they get the upper hand. A government desirous of doing justice to the native Irish would have begun by gradually emancipating them. But James, and Tyrconnel, a reckless unprincipled man who was his representative in Ireland, showed that they were determined to place the protestants at the mercy of the Roman-catholics. The former were seized with terror, and many of them fled to England. They had indeed good reason for their fears when they remembered the savage character of the people who were evidently about to be let loose on them, and their proceedings on former occasions. Tyrconnel made it his business to form an army in Ireland, consisting entirely of the native Irish. In later times the Irish soldiers have been among the best troops which the United Kingdom possessed, but at that time the people of Ireland were as alien to those of England as if they had been natives of Africa. The Irish army was thus looked on with fear, not only by the colonists of Ireland, but by the people of England. This fear was greatly increased after James found that the English troops would not support him, for he

then brought Irish soldiers over to England, and thus he soon had an army consisting chiefly of these foreign Roman-catholics, whom the people of England so thoroughly disliked. "Of the many errors," says Mr Macaulay, "which James committed, none was more fatal than this. Already he had alienated the hearts of his people by violating their laws, confiscating their estates, and persecuting their religion. Of those who had once been most zealous for monarchy he had already made many rebels in heart. Yet he might still, with some chance of success, have appealed to the patriotic spirit of his subjects against an invader. For they were a race insular in temper as well as in geographical position. Their national antipathies were, indeed, in that age, unreasonably and unamiably strong. They had never been accustomed to the control or interference of any stranger. The appearance of a foreign army on their soil might impel them to rally even round a king whom they had no reason to love. William might perhaps have been unable to overcome this difficulty, but James removed it. Not even the arrival of a brigade of Louis's musketeers would have excited such resentment and shame as our ancestors felt when they saw armed columns of papists just arrived from Dublin, moving in military pomp along the high roads."

4. LILLIBULERO.—In these times the modern manifestations of popular feeling were unknown: no public meetings were held to denounce grievances or assert rights; and no newspapers spread with the speed of the winds to the most distant parts of the island the eloquence of the statesman or the appeal of the patriot. Songs and pamphlets were the ordinary channels through which the people made known their sentiments; and availing himself of the former means, Lord Wharton wrote a ballad, in which he represented one Irishman congratulating another on the prospect of the English being subdued, and popery prevailing under a Roman-catholic heir to the crown. Bishop Burnet, when speaking of it, says, "a foolish ballad was made at that time, treating the papists, and chiefly the Irish, in a very ridiculous manner, which had a burden, said to be Irish words, 'lero, lero, lilli bulero,' that made an impression on the army that cannot be well imagined by those who saw it not. The whole army, and at last all the people, both in city and country, were singing it perpetually; and, perhaps, never had so slight a thing so great an effect."

On the 8th of November, the Prince of Orange reached

Exeter, where he quietly established his court and camp, waiting for such followers as might choose to join him, and noticing the turn of events. He published a declaration, intimating to the people of England that he had come only to protect their civil and religious liberties. He kept there for some time an orderly and peaceful camp, before he was joined by many persons of consequence: but when some officers of the army with their troops, and gentlemen of rank with their retainers, espoused his cause, others, who thought it was likely to prevail, followed. Lord Churchill, afterwards the famous Duke of Marlborough, was among the most conspicuous of the deserters; and when people saw that a man so sagacious and far-sighted had changed his allegiance, they concluded that the cause of the prince would certainly be successful. The king's son-in-law, George, prince of Denmark, was with James at the time when he heard of many of these desertions, and as each one was announced, the prince said in French, *Est-il possible!* "is it possible!" He was a weak-minded man, but his conduct shows how little talent it requires to be treacherous, for, while he pretended to be surprised, he was waiting for the proper moment to follow the deserters. When he departed, the poor king said, "So *Est-il possible* has gone too,"—the only joke he was ever known to utter besides one about Jeffreys' campaign. When the prince's wife, his daughter Anne, left him, he was overcome by more sorrowful reflections, and said, "God help me—my own children have forsaken me."

5. At length he thought his person in danger, and on the 10th of December secretly left the palace with the view of escaping to France. At his departure he attempted an idle piece of mischief to the country by throwing into the Thames the great seal by which the principal public documents were authenticated. When the city of London awoke without a king, and, what some people considered more serious, without a great seal, the lovers of order and the owners of property were seized with consternation. All the baser inhabitants of the capital, thieves, swindlers, ruffians, roamed abroad unrestrained. Some unprincipled persons added to the panic by proclaiming that the Irish troops were on their march to slaughter the citizens,—a circumstance so far from the truth, that these poor fellows, disbanded and thrown on their own resources, were humbly begging their bread in obscure places. The English, however, though unrestrained, showed no dis-

position for sanguinary outrage. On one man only did they show a disposition to exercise their vengeance—the detested Jeffreys. Conscious of his danger, he had disguised himself as a common sailor, and clipped his bushy eyebrows. Thus equipped he was seated in a small tavern at Wapping, when an attorney, who had once stood before him in mortal terror as he was bullying people in the Court of Chancery, happened to enter the room. The fierce eyes and the terrible brow had made such an impression upon the poor man that they would never desert him, and when he saw them before him in the person of the pretended sailor, he made an exclamation which enabled the people to discover their enemy. It was now his turn to suffer the tortures of fear which he had inflicted on others. He showed that like most cruel men he was an abject coward. He became almost delirious with fright, and being rescued from the crowd, he was at his own earnest prayer committed to the Tower, as the only place where he could feel that he was safe.

In his attempt to escape, the king was rudely handled by some ignorant fishermen, and as their interference aroused attention to his project of flight, he found it necessary to return to London. This event rather perplexed the adherents of the Prince of Orange, who did not wish any personal injury should happen to the king, and yet were so far committed that they could not safely see him restored to the throne. On the 23d of December he finally embarked for France.

6. THE CONVENTION.—As James left his palace of Whitehall, William arrived at it, and his troops were posted round the metropolis to prevent disorder. A number of the gentlemen who had been members of the last parliament of Charles II. were desired to meet and give the prince their advice. They requested him to direct the affairs of the country in the mean time, and to assemble the peers and the representatives of the people. These were assembled accordingly on the 22d of January 1689, and as they were not called together in the usual manner by the sovereign authority, their meeting, instead of a parliament, was styled a Convention. One of its first acts was to pass the celebrated “Declaration of Rights,” condemning the arbitrary proceedings of the last reign. It also decided that James II. had abdicated the government, and that the throne was vacant. The parliament requested that the Prince of Orange and his wife should become King and Queen of England, on the condition that the exercise of the

royal power should be in the prince. This arrangement was acceded to, and so the great Revolution of 1688 was accomplished in England.

SCOTLAND.—In Scotland the arrival of the Prince of Orange was a matter of almost greater importance to the majority of the people than in England; but as the principal parties to the Revolution were in the latter country, the events which took place there had a less striking appearance. William called together several of the Scottish nobles and gentry, and some of their clergy, in London. Having suffered much for being presbyterians, they were inclined to use harsh measures to their enemies, and were rather disappointed by the moderate tone of the prince. They proposed, however, that a convention of the estates should be held in Scotland to consider the state of the nation. This body adopted a stronger and more distinct resolution than the convention in England, for they declared that James had forfeited the crown, and they settled it on the Prince and Princess of Orange.

EXERCISES.

1. What event may be called the turning point of the Revolution? How did the people view the imprisonment of the bishops? What was the result of their trial? How did the birth of a child influence the Revolution? What was the state of the army?
2. What connexion had the Prince of Orange with the royal family of Britain? Who urged him to a descent on England? How did he act? What was his character? On what day was an invitation sent to him? When and where did he land?
3. What had alienated the Irish from England? How would a government desirous to do justice to them have acted? How did James wish to take advantage of their feelings? Who helped him to form an Irish army? Describe the feeling with which the English contemplated it.
4. What celebrated ballad was produced at this time? What effect had it on the people? What was the conduct of the Prince of Orange? What were the terms of his proclamation? Mention some conspicuous persons who deserted King James to join him. What was the conduct of the Prince of Denmark?
5. How did James act when he thought his person in danger? What piece of mischief did he play? Describe the state of London next morning. What disposition did the people show? Describe what happened to Jeffreys. What happened to James before he finally embarked?
6. When did William arrive at Whitehall? What steps were then taken? What was the prince requested to do? What was the Convention? What was the "Declaration of Rights"? What arrangement was made as to the exercise of the royal power? Describe how the Revolution proceeded in Scotland. Why was the resolution adopted there stronger than that of the English convention?

CHAPTER XXIX.

HOUSE OF ORANGE.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE DEATH OF WILLIAM III.,
A. D. 1689—1702.

William and Mary—Resistance in Scotland—Battles of Killiecrankie and Boyne Water—Massacre of Glencoe—War with France—Treaty of Ryswick—Jealousy of the Commons—Act of Succession—The Darien Expedition.

1. Thus were William and Mary seated on the throne of the United Kingdom; both enjoying the dignity of royalty, but he exercising the royal authority. In this whole arrangement, it will be observed with what wonderful ingenuity the parliament had managed to elect a person to be their ruler on account of his ability to govern the country, while at the same time they diverged but very slightly out of the ordinary line of hereditary succession. It was a matter to be regretted that William had no offspring, as the crown would then have quietly descended to his children. As it happened, the queen's sister Anne, on whom the succession was to fall, also died childless, so that the statesmen of the time had the difficult and delicate duty of three times selecting successors to the throne beyond the hereditary line. The queen died on the 28th of December 1694, and from that time to his death William was the sole monarch of the three kingdoms.

England offered no substantial resistance to the Revolution settlement; but James received formidable support in Scotland, where that portion of the people which adhered to the episcopal church was alienated by the restoration of the presbyterian system. Edinburgh castle was held out by the Duke of Gordon, and when the heralds in their official dress summoned him to surrender, he told them in scorn, that as they appeared with King James's coat on, they should have had the decency to turn it before delivering such a message. John Graham of Claverhouse, celebrated for the aid he gave in persecuting the covenanters, now raised to the rank of Viscount Dundee, assembled an army of Highlanders, and defeated the

17th July } troops of the government at Killiecrankie; but he
1691. } was mortally wounded as he was giving the last

orders to complete his victory, and the insurrection died with him.

The efforts of James in Ireland, where he headed his partisans in person, were not more fortunate; and, in despite of the valour of the Irish and the support of Louis XIV., he was utterly defeated in the disastrous battle of the Boyne, and was once more compelled to leave his kingdom, which he never saw again. The victory at Aughrim, and the capitulation of Limerick, completed the reduction of Ireland, and William, now become master of the three kingdoms, was able to direct all his forces against France.

2. MASSACRE OF GLENCOE.—The submission of Scotland was not so complete as that of Ireland: as the Highlanders had not all submitted, it was resolved to gain over the chiefs by pecuniary bribes, and for this purpose £16,000 were sent to the Earl of Breadalbane, who had guaranteed the success of the measure. But the earl had another object besides the submission of the clans, one of whose lords, Macdonald of Glencoe, had, during the course of hostilities, plundered his lands, and he desired to be indemnified for his losses out of the sum set apart for that chieftain. Macdonald, however, would not consent, and at his instigation other Highland clans rejected the offers of Breadalbane, who swore to be avenged. A proclamation was issued in August 1691, calling on all the Highland chiefs to take the oath of allegiance before the 1st of January 1692. Nearly every chief at once came forward to take the oath, much to the mortification of Breadalbane and his friends, who knew that they still retained their attachment for King James. But Macdonald seemed disposed to defy the government, though in the end he deemed it wiser to submit; and just before the first of January he appeared at Fort-William to take the oath. The governor, however, was not authorized to receive it, and he was compelled to go to the sheriff of Argyle. Having to cross a wild district covered with snow, the first of January had come before he could comply with the law. Still he was told that no advantage would be taken of the omission, and he felt secure. His enemies, however, procured an order for the destruction of him and his people; and it will ever be a stain on the memory of William, that, either through negligence or cruelty, he should have consented to it. It was to be executed by Captain Campbell of Glenlyon. To add perfidy to cruelty, Campbell entered the valley

of Glencoe as a guest, and was hospitably entertained there, when he surprised the Macdonalds during the night, murdered the greater number of the men, and setting fire to the houses, retired laden with plunder, leaving the women and children without clothing, food, or shelter, to perish from cold and starvation (February 1692).

3. Louis XIV. made another attempt to restore James to his throne. He collected 20,000 troops for the invasion of England; but the destruction of the French fleet at the battle of La Hogue compelled him to abandon the enterprise (1692). The course of the war on the continent was less favourable to the arms of England: William's troops were always inferior in number, but were never shamefully routed; and in these campaigns Marlborough began to display his splendid military talents. The treaty of Ryswick, signed on the 21st of September 1697, put an end to hostilities, England and France mutually agreeing to restore their conquests.

While William was raising the credit and dignity of the English nation abroad, he enjoyed at home a precarious power, and was continually thwarted by the jealousy of parliament. At first his civil list was only granted for a short period. When fixing the sum destined for the support of the royal household, the Commons had resolved, that it was their duty to watch over the public expenditure,—a privilege they have maintained ever since. To obtain supplies in 1694, the king was obliged to consent to a bill making the duration of parliaments *triennial*,—a measure which tended to diminish the influence of the crown over that body. In 1696, when a conspiracy was discovered against William's life, the two houses showed the greatest zeal for his person; but in 1697, after the treaty of Ryswick, they left him only 8000 men of the army which he desired to render permanent. In 1699, this number was decreased to 7000; and he was further required to dismiss his Dutch guards. As the Duke of Gloucester, the only surviving child of the Princess Anne, the heiress to
 A. D. } the crown, died in 1700, the parliament, to fix the suc-
 1701. } cession in the protestant line, declared the Princess Sophia, dowager-duchess of Hanover, the nearest heir to the throne next to the respective descendants of the king and of the Princess Anne, daughter of James II. This bill, regulating the succession to the crown, contained various regulations restricting the royal prerogative, which William vainly endeavoured to get rejected. The bitter invectives which the

Commons permitted against his partition treaties with Louis XIV., relative to the Spanish monarchy, and the charges brought against his ministers, embittered the latter period of his life.

4. THE DARIEN EXPEDITION.—Some events took place in Scotland which threatened to create war between the two countries though they were under one monarch. The Scots, seeing that the English had enriched themselves with foreign trade, wished to follow their example, and to possess colonies like their neighbours. An ingenious man named Patterson, who was the founder of the Bank of England, suggested that they should form a large partnership, to be called "The Company trading to Africa and the Indies," which was in some measure to resemble the East India Company. The company was embodied by an act of the Scottish parliament, and many English people took shares in it; but the English merchants, and especially the East India Company, believing that it would hurt their interests, stirred up the Houses of Lords and Commons of England against it, and prevailed on the king to discountenance it. This only made the Scots pursue it more eagerly, and they subscribed to it four hundred
 A.D. } thousand pounds,—a sum in those days thought incon-
 1698. } ceivably great for so poor a country.

Thus provided with money, the company proposed to create a colony, and they fixed on the narrow neck of land between the great continents of North and South America, as a fit place for its establishment, believing that they would there secure a connexion with the trade conducted with both sides of the New World. To this place the company despatched a colony, which settled itself on a peninsula stretching out from the
 31 Nov. } isthmus of Darien, and which they named after their
 1698. } own country "Caledonia." Their first landing had every appearance of prosperity, but they mismanaged their business, and quarrelled among themselves. Their friends in Scotland, not knowing how much a new colony requires assistance from home, neglected them. The Spanish government maintained that the territory of Darien belonged to themselves, and they threatened to exterminate the settlers. The English colonies were nearly as hostile, for they would neither give nor sell provisions to the Scots at Darien, and when some of these, driven to despair, sailed for Jamaica, they were received as enemies. The company sent out other vessels and more colonists, but they fared no better; and in the end,

with bitterness of heart, the Scottish nation were compelled to give up their attempt to possess a colony and enjoy a foreign trade, knowing that it was the commercial jealousy of England that compelled them to resign their projects. The disappointment sank deep in their hearts, and a hatred of England began to grow stronger every day.

The vast continental projects of the king, and the difficulties he encountered from the contending interests in his dominions, were too much for his frame to endure; for he was not naturally robust, and only the keenness and energy of his spirit supported him through the perils and difficulties of his career. While riding from Kensington to Hampton Court, his horse, having started, fell under him, and his collar-bone was broken.

8th March } He died not many days after the accident, in the
1702. } fifty-second year of his age.

During this reign parliament neglected no opportunity of claiming and upholding their rights; and their want of affection towards William saved those national liberties which might have perished under a king more beloved by his subjects. He was somewhat too fond of war, and did not sufficiently protect and encourage literature and the arts. Dryden, Newton, and Locke, are almost the only great literary and scientific names that shed any lustre upon this reign.

EXERCISES.

1. What is remarkable in the arrangement made for the succession to the crown? How often had the succession to be altered? Where was resistance offered to the revolution settlement? What occurred at Edinburgh Castle? Describe the career of Graham of Claverhouse. What were the chief occurrences in the war in Ireland?

2. What plan was taken to gain over the Highland chiefs? Who undertook to bribe them? What was the nature of the proclamation issued to them? Describe the manner in which Macdonald of Glencoe acted? How was the massacre perpetrated?

3. What effort did Louis XIV. make for the restoration of James? What treaty put an end to the war with France? What measure relating to parliament did William require to consent to? What was done in relation to his troops? How was the succession to the throne settled?

4. What project was formed in Scotland? Who was at the head of it? What body felt a jealousy towards it? Where was the new colony established? What was the conduct of the English government towards it? What was the consequence of this conduct? What caused King William's death?

CHAPTER XXX.

HOUSE OF STEWART.

ANNE, A. D. 1702—1714.

New Ministry—Renewal of War with France—Marlborough's Successes—The Occasional Conformity Bill—Battle of Blenheim—Capture of Gibraltar—The Union of England and Scotland—Battles of Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet—Mrs Masham—Dr Sacheverel—New Tory Ministry—Peace of Utrecht—Church of Scotland.

1. ALL parties joyfully hailed the accession of Anne, who was then in her thirty-eighth year. She almost immediately went down to the parliament, declared her resolution to maintain the protestant religion and succession, and to prosecute the measures concerted by the late king, "the great support not only of these kingdoms, but of all Europe."

The queen's inclination for the party in favour of high monarchical principles was manifest from the appointment of her ministers. Lord Rochester, her uncle, was continued lord-lieutenant of Ireland; Lord Nottingham was secretary of state; the Marquis of Normanby got the privy-seal; Marlborough was decorated with the order of the garter, named captain-general of the English forces at home and abroad, and master of the ordnance; Godolphin was made lord high treasurer, being in reality prime minister; and the queen's husband, Prince George of Denmark, still occupied his seat in the House of Peers as Duke of Cumberland, and was named generalissimo and lord high admiral.

In the year 1701, a grand alliance had been formed between England, Holland, and the Empire, to prevent the union of France and Spain, the king of the latter country, Charles II., having bequeathed his crown to Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. Anne having declared her intention to maintain the treaties concluded by the late king, Marlborough was appointed generalissimo of the allied troops, and immediately opened the campaign. In a very short time he captured Venloo, Ruremonde, Stevenswaert, and Liege, reduced Spanish Gueldres, and drove the French across their own frontiers. The allies were less successful in Germany and

Italy against Villars and Vendôme, and the combined fleets were compelled to return into port. But they soon had their revenge. Sir George Rooke having learned that the West Indian plate fleet was lying at Vigo, under the protection of a French squadron, sailed to that harbour, landed the Duke of Ormond, who at the head of 3000 men took a castle which commanded the entrance of the port, and after a sharp action succeeded in bringing off ten men of war, eleven galleons, and seven million pieces of eight. Other treasures to the amount of fourteen millions were sunk in the bay. Marlborough on his return home was raised to the dukedom, and parliament thanked him for his services (1702).

Although the queen on her accession had promised to protect the nonconformists, the predominant party resolved to expel them from every public employment. They brought in the notorious "Occasional Conformity Bill," the professed object of which was to prevent hypocrisy in religion and danger to the church, but its real aim was to repeal the toleration act. By this bill, all who took the sacrament and test oath as qualifications for office, and afterwards frequented any meeting for religious worship not according to the liturgy and practice of the church of England, were to be disabled from holding any employment then or thereafter, and were liable to heavy fines. The Commons passed the bill by a large majority; but so many alterations and modifications were introduced into it by the Lords that it was lost. Prince George himself, an occasional conformist, voted for the measure, although he kept a Lutheran chapel and Lutheran chaplains; and it is important to observe, that one of its introducers was the famous St John, afterwards Lord Bolingbroke, originally a dissenter, but who, having now no religion at all, willingly adopted any plans of intolerance and persecution that favoured the views of his party.

2. The campaign of 1704 was ruinous to France. Prince Eugene and Marlborough, after uniting their forces in Germany, gaining many partial successes, and ravaging Bavaria, gave battle to the French near the village of Blenheim (13th August). There Marshall Tallard was utterly defeated; the loss of the Franco-Bavarian army in killed and prisoners exceeded 35,000 men, while the allies lost not more than 12,000. For this brilliant victory the duke was rewarded by the gift of the manor of Woodstock, and the palace of Blenheim was erected for him at the national expense.

The Archduke Charles, or, as he was now called, King Charles of Spain, was conveyed to Portugal by a fleet under the command of Admiral Rooke. In Lisbon he was received with royal honours, and he shortly after attempted the bold enterprise of invading Spain; but was soon driven back across the frontiers by the Duke of Berwick. This title will be recognised as connected with England and Scotland, although it then belonged to a Spanish grandee in the service of the King of Spain. The duke was the natural son of James II., by Arabella Churchill, Marlborough's sister, so that here we have two great commanders on opposite sides who were not only born British subjects, but nearly related to each other. Meanwhile Rooke, who had on board a body of land forces under the command of the Prince of Hesse-Darmstadt, resolved to make an attempt upon Gibraltar, at that time very insufficiently garrisoned. The soldiers were disembarked on the isthmus to intercept all communication with Spain, and, after a tremendous cannonading, the English effected a landing on the South Mole Head, upon which this strong fortress surrendered.

3. THE UNION.—The danger of a war between England and Scotland showed the statesmen of Queen Anne's reign how desirable it would be to unite the two countries, so that they should not only have one monarch, but one legislature and government; for as long as each had a parliament and ministry, their interests were separate, and no one could tell how long they would be kept in peace. The Scots were deeply exasperated by the conduct of the English government towards their favourite Darien scheme,—a state of feeling much increased by the following incident. A ship belonging to the Darien Company was seized, on the ground of its infringing the privileges of the English East India Company. The Scots retaliated by capturing an English vessel, commanded by one Captain Green, in the Firth of Forth. Some things mentioned by the sailors of this vessel led the Scots, who were strongly prejudiced against them, to charge them with committing piracy and murder; and rather to throw defiance at England than to do justice, Captain Green and part of his crew were charged with these crimes before the A.D. } Court of Admiralty in Edinburgh, found guilty, and
1704. } hanged.

Nearly at the same time the Scots parliament, who had not fixed the succession to the crown, were rather imperiously

called on to arrange it in the same manner as it had been settled in England. Instead of doing so, they passed an act called the "Act of Security," which appointed the choice of a successor to devolve on parliament on the death of the queen, subject to this rule, that parliament should not select the same person who was made monarch of England, unless the Scottish nation was allowed to participate in all the privileges of trade with the English. At the same time troops were raised, and the English border was threatened with invasion. All these things showed how great a blessing it would be to establish a permanent national union.

The queen, with the authority of parliament, appointed commissioners from England and Scotland, to treat of this great question, who finally drew up a treaty of union. The project was not very popular in either country, but in Scotland the resistance nearly terminated in open rebellion. Its opponents in parliament were, however, in a minority: the Scots parliament approved of the treaty by a majority of 110; and on the 25th of March 1707, this legislative body was dissolved, never to meet again.

The principal clauses of the act of union were as follows: That the succession to the monarchy of the United Kingdom should be and continue in the house of Hanover; the United Kingdom should be represented by one parliament, in which sixteen peers and forty-five commoners should represent Scotland; that all the subjects of the United Kingdom should have full freedom of trade and navigation with any port in Great Britain and its colonies; that all should enjoy the same commercial allowances and privileges, and be liable to the same restrictions; that the laws of public policy should be the same for the United Kingdom, but that no alteration should be made in the laws concerning private rights, except for the benefit of Scotland; that the Scottish courts of judicature should remain unchanged; and that the Church of Scotland should be maintained inviolate in all its rights and privileges. The bill met with very trifling opposition in the English parliament, and as the queen gave her assent, she added, "I consider this union as a matter of the greatest importance to the wealth, strength, and safety of the whole island; and I make no doubt it will be remembered and spoken of hereafter to the honour of those who have been instrumental in bringing it to such a happy conclusion;" and the two Houses congratulated her majesty upon the termination of a transaction

that, "after so many fruitless endeavours, seemed destined by Providence to add new lustre to the glories of her majesty's reign."

4. Meanwhile, the course of affairs on the continent continued most prosperous. Villeroi had been sent with a numerous army against Marlborough; but at Ramillies he was ^{23d May} _{1706.} } defeated with a loss of 8000 killed and 6000 prisoners, besides all his artillery and baggage. By this battle the French lost the whole of Spanish Flanders. In Italy; Prince Eugene gained the battle of Turin, and drove the Duke of Orleans back to France. These losses were so poorly counterbalanced by a few trivial successes in Spain, that Louis XIV. sued for peace; but so great was the influence of Marlborough and his duchess, that the French king's proposals were rejected, and the war continued.

The campaign of 1707 was less fortunate for the allies: in Spain, the Duke of Berwick gained a complete victory at Almanza, over the Archduke Charles, who commanded the allied troops, and all Spain, except Catalonia, acknowledged King Philip. The Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugene were also obliged to raise the siege of Toulon, which they had undertaken in concert with the allied fleets commanded by Sir Cloudesley Shovel.

In the following year, Louis XIV., desirous of making a powerful diversion to relieve the Low Countries, resolved to send the son of James II. to Scotland with an army. The opportunity was certainly most favourable, for the Union had caused the greatest discontent, and several partial risings had taken place. An expedition was rapidly prepared at Dunkirk, and the Pretender, styled by some the Chevalier St George, by the English Jacobites James III., and by the Scotch James VIII., embarked in great state. Forbin, who commanded the squadron, thought to find the northern coast of Great Britain unprotected; but when he reached the Firth of Forth, he perceived that the entrance was defended by a strong force under Sir George Byng. Being too weak to attack the English, he returned to Dunkirk with the loss of one vessel.

The battle of Oudenarde, in which the French lost 15,000 men, and above a hundred colours, marked the beginning of ^{11th July} _{1708.} } the campaign in Flanders. Lille, the key to Paris and one-half of France, was immediately invested, but did not surrender till after a siege of four months (10th

December), the allies having lost from 12,000 to 15,000 men before this important place. Ghent capitulated without a struggle, and Bruges, with other towns, was abandoned. In Spain the allies were less successful; but Minorca and Sardinia were reduced. These great losses, combined with the distress occasioned by a severe winter, decided Louis XIV. once more to sue for peace, but the demands of the allies were so exorbitant that the negotiations were broken off. The campaign re-opened in June 1709, and on the 12th of September the battle of Malplaquet, more terrible than either Blenheim or Ramillies, cost the French 30,000 in killed alone.

5. Meantime serious events were transpiring in England. The queen was growing weary of the yoke of the Duchess of Marlborough, and her favour inclined towards Mrs Masham, commonly known by her original name of Abigail Hill, a woman who had been introduced by the Duchess of Marlborough herself, as a person fitted to hold a subordinate situation in the queen's household. This new *confidante*, aided by Secretary Harley and Mr St John, yielded to all the queen's humours, and particularly flattered her leaning towards the tories, which the duchess had always opposed. Anne, however, still feared the affection entertained by the people towards the whigs, when an obscure and unworthy divine changed the current of affairs.

DOCTOR SACHEVEREL.—On the 5th of November, Dr Henry Sacheverel had preached before the Lord Mayor and Corporation in St Paul's cathedral a most violent sermon, on the text, "Perils from false brethren." He abused the bishops for their toleration and their opposition to the persecution of dissenters; maintained the doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance in their broadest extent; characterized the Revolution of 1688 as an unrighteous change and an unpardonable offence; and wound up his furious invectives by proclaiming the church to be in danger. The Commons voted this, and another sermon of a similar kind, which he had preached at Derby on the 15th of August, to be scandalous and seditious libels, and had impeached him and taken him into custody. The trial began before the Lords on the 27th of February 1710. Sacheverel was supported by all the tories, the whole of the clergy, and the great body of the people, who were alarmed by the cry that the church was in danger; the lowest in society and morals being his most conspicuous defenders. The trial lasted three weeks, and every day, as he

left Westminster Hall, a numerous mob accompanied him to his house with loud huzzas, and tremendous cries of "High church and Doctor Sacheverel." In their enthusiasm they plundered and burnt several meeting-houses of the dissenters, nor did they refrain from destroying many private dwellings, until the military were compelled to act against them. Sacheverel was declared guilty, and enjoined not to preach for three years. His sermons were burnt by the hangman in front of the Royal Exchange.

The doctor had been accused by the whigs, and the popular favour now deserted them. On returning to England, Marlborough, instead of being solemnly thanked by the parliament and triumphantly received by the people, was insulted by the mob, and attacked in numerous libels, wherein his avarice and ambition were severely commented on, and even his courage and military talents called in question. Anne was delighted at this change of feeling; and the haughty bearing of the duchess towards her favourite and herself daily widened the gulf between her and the whigs. She soon acted upon her impressions: Godolphin was deprived of his office, and the treasury put in commission under Harley's direction, who was appointed chancellor of the exchequer and under-treasurer. Lord Dartmouth succeeded Sunderland as secretary of state; St John replaced Boyle; Cowper resigned the great seal to Sir Simon Harcourt. Not a whig was left in council or in power, with the exception of Marlborough, whose services could not be dispensed with so long as the war lasted. Peace was accordingly resolved upon: Secretaries Harley and St John did not hesitate to sacrifice their allies and the whole object of these lengthened hostilities. Parliament authorized the ministers to sign the preliminaries of a treaty; it even went farther, and accused Marlborough of speculation, and the queen stripped him of all his offices. But the emperor and the states-general would not hear of peace, and Prince Eugene visited England on one of the most difficult of commissions,—to endeavour to restore Marlborough to his sovereign's good graces; to represent the fatal consequences of deserting the allies; and to propose a new plan for the future conduct of the war. As might have been foreseen, he completely failed in his mission.

6. The negotiations which ended in the celebrated treaty of Utrecht rapidly advanced; a suspension of arms was agreed upon between the two powers; but Eugene still carried on

the war most vigorously, when the victory of Denain saved France, and hastened the conclusion of a treaty, which was signed at Utrecht between England, Holland, Portugal, Prussia, Savoy, and France. The emperor did not accede to the treaty until a year after, when forced by the successes of Marshal Villars. By this treaty Louis recognised the Hanoverian succession, abandoned the Pretender, and agreed to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk: Minorca and Gibraltar, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson's Bay, were to be retained by Great Britain; Sicily was to be given to the Duke of Savoy, and additional frontier towns were assigned to the Dutch as a perpetual barrier; and Philip V. renounced his claim to the crown of France, and the other French princes resigned their rights to that of Spain. As a reward for their services, Harley and St John were raised to the peerage, the one as Earl of Oxford, the other as Viscount Bolingbroke. These loving friends when in opposition became most violent rivals when in power, and the privy-council was daily disturbed by their altercations. Anne favoured Bolingbroke, who, knowing her aversion to the Hanoverian line, fostered her leaning towards the Pretender.

Among the most important of the events between the treaty of Utrecht and the death of Anne, was one relating to the Church of Scotland. That lay patrons should have influence over ecclesiastical offices was always offensive to the presbyterians, and in 1690 an act was passed by the Scottish parliament superseding the power of the patrons to present to charges, and appointing them to be paid a certain sum as compensation by the landed proprietors of the parish. It declared the nomination of the pastors to belong to the elders and the protestant heritors of the parish, who were to propose the person to the whole congregation; and added that the latter, in case of refusal, should state their reasons to the presbytery.

A.D. } Queen Anne's tory ministry repealed this act, avowedly
1712. } for the purpose of mortifying the presbyterians. The war against the exercise of patronage in the Church of Scotland, thus commenced, has ever since continued. It caused secessions from the establishment in the early part of last century, and was the cause of the disruption of 1843, when the Free Church was founded. In the meanwhile the results of the Union had not been satisfactory. The members from Scotland were sneered at by the English for the poverty of their country, or their northern accent and customs, and they

in their turn banded themselves together, that they might be formidable by always voting in a body, without respect to A.D. } politics. They at last called for a dissolution of the
1713 } Union. It was debated in both houses, and in the House of Lords was only lost by a majority of four.

Anne's health now began sensibly to decline, and each party eagerly laid its plans for seizing on the government. These intrigues so irritated her mind, that she rapidly grew worse. On the 30th of July 1714, she was attacked with an apoplectic fit, and afterwards sank into a stupor, and on the first of August she expired, in the fiftieth year of her age and the thirteenth of her reign. Her husband had preceded her to the grave six years, and of her seventeen children not one survived.

EXERCISES.

1. How did the reign of Queen Anne begin? What party did her ministry belong to? Who was appointed chief commander in the war with France? What were the principal events in the history of the campaign? What was the nature of the Bill of Occasional Conformity?

2. What were the chief events of the campaign in the year 1704? For what great victory was Marlborough rewarded? Who was conveyed to Portugal by Admiral Rooke? By whom was the archduke driven across the frontiers? What relationship had the Duke of Berwick with the exiled Stewart family? Mention a circumstance that is remarkable about two commanders in this war.

3. What were the peculiar circumstances in the condition of England and Scotland which rendered a union desirable? Mention an incident which showed the danger of a war between the two countries. What did the parliament of Scotland arrange as to the succession? What measures were taken for bringing about the Union? What were the principal clauses of the Act of Union?

4. What were the chief occurrences of the war in 1706? What occurred in the ensuing year? What expedition was planned against Scotland? What was the result of it? Name the battle which marked the beginning of the campaign of 1708 in Flanders. When was the battle of Malplaquet fought?

5. Whom did Queen Anne substitute for the Duchess of Marlborough as her favourite? Give the names of two statesmen who aided her in a political change. Give an account of Dr Sacheverel and his proceedings. What was the conduct of his followers? What was the effect of the manifestation in his favour?

6. What was the name of a celebrated treaty concluded by the new ministry? What governments were parties to it? Mention some of its terms. Describe an important measure as to the Church of Scotland, which followed the treaty of Utrecht? What were the effects of this measure? What risk did the Union incur? When did Queen Anne die?

CHAPTER XXXI.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK—SIX SOVEREIGNS.

GEORGE I., A. D. 1714—1727.

Dynasty of Hanover—George I.—His first Parliament—Sir William Wyndham—Impeachment of Lords Oxford and Bolingbroke—Scottish Rebellion of 1715—The Septennial Act—Swedish Plot in favour of the Pretender—War with Spain—The South Sea Scheme—Jacobite Plot—War with Germany—Rise of the Methodists.

1. GEORGE, called to the throne by the act of settlement, was the first monarch of the Brunswick family, from which the present queen is lineally descended. It may be interesting to trace his relationship to the royal family of Stewart, which was now permanently superseded. It will be remembered that Elizabeth, the daughter of James I., was married to the Elector Palatine. They had a daughter, Sophia, married to the Elector of Hanover, who would have been the Queen of Britain had she not died shortly before Queen Anne. Her son, the Elector of Hanover, then fifty-four years old, succeeded to her right. By this arrangement, not only were the descendants of James II. passed over, but also those of his sister Henrietta, who was married to the Duke of Orleans, brother of Louis XIV., all of them being Romanists.

The mature age of George I., his experience, his aptitude and application to business, his numerous alliances, and the general tranquillity of Europe, seemed to promise a happy and peaceful reign. But his aversion to the tories, and his exclusive attachment to the whigs, to whom he yielded the government, caused great discontent, and dangerous tumults broke out in several parts of his dominions.

The *Pretender*, for by this name the son of James II. was generally known, endeavoured to profit by this state of affairs, and published a manifesto, complaining that, contrary to the fundamental laws of hereditary right, the English nation had proclaimed a foreign prince. The king felt the need of a parliament devoted to his interests, and a new one was called under the influence of the court. Its first act was to fix the civil list at £700,000. The proclamation by which George had convoked the new parliament was in a form till then un-

known. He complained of the wicked intentions of those who were ill affected to the order of succession, and expressed a hope and desire that the electors would return persons capable of remedying the existing disorders, and who were attached to the protestant succession. Some of the members of the Commons ventured to blame this proclamation; and when Sir William Wyndham declared it to be unprecedented and dangerous to the very nature of a parliament, he was threatened with the Tower, and was ordered to quit the house: one hundred and twenty-nine members accompanied him. Those who remained voted that he should be reprimanded by the Speaker for having made an unwarrantable use of the freedom of debate.

2. IMPEACHMENT OF OXFORD.—This was merely a prelude to the violence meditated by the dominant party. Seeking a pretext for impeaching the late ministers, a secret committee was appointed to inquire into the negotiations concluded towards the end of the last reign. Upon the report of that committee, Robert Walpole accused one of the negotiators, Lord Bolingbroke, of high treason. When some of the members demurred to this serious charge, Lord Coningsby rose and said: "The worthy chairman of the committee has impeached the hand, but I impeach the head; he has impeached the scholar, and I the master; I impeach Robert earl of Oxford and Earl Mortimer of high treason and other high crimes and misdemeanours." To no purpose did Oxford's brother represent that that minister had done nothing but by the queen's orders; that after all the peace of Utrecht was an advantageous one, and that it had been approved of by two parliaments. On the 9th of July, the articles of impeachment were carried to the bar of the House of Lords, and Oxford, although suffering under a painful malady, was committed to the Tower. Similar charges were brought against the Earl of Strafford and the Duke of Ormond. Bolingbroke, foreseeing the storm that threatened him, had escaped to France; and Ormond followed his example. A bill of attainder was passed against the two fugitives, and their names were erased from the rolls of the peerage. They subsequently joined the court of the exiled prince, with whom, indeed, there is no doubt that Bolingbroke held a correspondence when he was professing to serve the interests of Hanover. The proceedings of the party in power caused great discontent, which, being fomented by the whigs, daily increased in

strength. London and Westminster had already been the theatre of frequent tumults : the people had insulted those who celebrated the king's birth-day, and had burnt William III. in effigy in Smithfield. The Earl of Oxford had been accompanied to the Tower by an immense crowd, who vented loud execrations against his alleged persecutors. In the county of Stafford, and in other parts of England, tumultuous meetings had been held against the whigs ; and the Commons presented an address to the king, soliciting vigorous measures against these disturbers of the public peace. A bill (the well known Riot Act) was accordingly prepared, which enacted that, whenever an assemblage of twelve persons should not disperse within an hour after a legal warning to that effect, they should be declared guilty of felony. When the king went to parliament to give his assent to this and other bills, he said that England was on the verge of rebellion, and that the country, in consequence of Jacobite intrigues, was threatened with an invasion from abroad. He was accordingly empowered to suspend the *habeas corpus* act and to arrest all suspected persons. A reward of £100,000 was offered for the apprehension of the Pretender, dead or alive. The fleet was put upon a war footing, and orders were issued for raising twenty new regiments. Some very stringent regulations were also passed against the Scotch Jacobites.

These measures were probably more calculated to precipitate than to prevent rebellion. The Pretender, invited by a powerful party in England, and relying upon assistance from Louis XIV., flattered himself with the hopes of a fortunate early restoration. But the death of that king disappointed all his expectations. The regent, Philip of Orleans, connected himself with the House of Hanover, and the Jacobites were compelled to renounce all idea of support from France.

3. REBELLION OF 1715.—Nevertheless, a formidable riot took place in the Highlands of Scotland. The Earl of Mar who had been secretary of state for Scotland, and had held other high offices under Queen Anne, immediately professed the utmost devotion to the cause of George, to whom he offered his services. The offer met with contemptuous neglect, and the earl set off for his highland estates, where he claimed James III. at the head of 10,000 followers, and the northern counties of England followed this example. The Pretender, a prince of feeble resolution, after some delay and hesitation, set sail for Scotland, where he found his party

weakened and discouraged by the battles of Preston in Lancashire and Sheriffmuir in Scotland. Instead of reviving them by active and energetic measures, he spent six weeks in idle parade; and then hastily re-embarked without having even seen an enemy. The course of the Revolution and the Hanover succession was at that time in great danger; and if the Jacobites had possessed an able general, they might at least have severed Scotland from England. They were, in fact, for a long time in complete possession of the ancient kingdom of the Stewarts, excepting its northern extremity, Edinburgh Castle, and a few other fortified places. The victory of the whigs was, however, in the end an easy one, and they might have followed it up with greater leniency. A large number of the insurgents were hanged, beheaded, and quartered, and 1000 were transported to the colonies of North America.

SEPTENNIAL ACT.—This harshness did not put an end to the discontent. The parliament, then sitting, was subservient to the ministers; but new elections, under the influence of the prevailing feelings, might change every thing, and expose the dominant party to terrible retaliation. To secure themselves against this danger, the ministry resolved on procuring the repeal of the triennial act, and extending the duration of parliament to seven years. After some opposition, the change was agreed to by a large majority (April 1716).

4. THE SWEDISH PLOT.—The king having relieved himself from the embarrassing clause in the act of settlement restraining him from leaving the kingdom, revisited his German dominions. As elector of Hanover, he had in the previous year purchased from the King of Denmark the duchies of Bremen and Verden, of which Charles XII. of Sweden had been deprived during his absence. When this prince returned to his kingdom, he vainly demanded their restoration, and in great resentment, he resolved, at the suggestion of Baron Gortz, a principal minister, to attempt an invasion of England in support of the Pretender. The connivance of Spain and Holland, the intrigues of Gortz in the latter country and in England, and the number of malcontents ready to second his enterprise, seemed to promise success. George prepared to meet this danger by entering into an alliance with France and Holland, and by the most prompt and energetic measures. On the news of the plot preparing against him, he hastily returned to London, and arrested Count Gyllenborg, the

Swedish ambassador at St James's; while at the same time, and at George's request, the States-general secured the Baron Gortz. In Gyllenborg's papers were found the most complete proofs of the conspiracy. (Of this the king took advantage to obtain an extraordinary supply, on the pretext of guarding against the designs of Sweden. But the sudden death of Charles XII., who was killed at the siege of Frederickshall, delivered him from the danger of the projected invasion, and the duchies of Bremen and Verden remained attached to the House of Hanover,—an acquisition that brought with it many expensive continental connexions.

George I. was now in possession of these duchies, but had not yet received investiture from the emperor. This induced him to become the zealous ally of Charles VI. in the war which Alberoni excited between that prince and Spain. Philip V. having refused to accede to the treaty of the quadruple alliance, concluded between the Emperor, France, England, and Holland, in order to maintain the peace of Europe and to regulate the interests of the Spaniards and Imperialists in Italy, George equipped a strong squadron, which, under the command of Admiral Byng, destroyed the Spanish
 A. D. } fleet off the coast of Sicily. In the following year,
 1718. } Alberoni prepared an expedition in favour of the Pretender, the usual scarecrow with which the enemies of England threatened the new dynasty. The armament consisted of ten vessels of war and a number of transports carrying 6000 soldiers with arms for 12,000 more. But this fleet was dispersed off Cape Finisterre by a violent tempest; only two frigates reached Scotland, where they landed 300 men, who, being joined and then abandoned by a few Highlanders, were promptly made prisoners. At the same time the Imperialists were victorious in Sicily, in consequence of the co-operation of the English fleet, and Philip V. at length joined the quadruple alliance, and dismissed his warlike minister.

5. SOUTH SEA SCHEME.—Alberoni by his impracticable enterprises, and Law by his extravagant schemes, had almost ruined Spain and France. England, in her turn, was brought to the verge of bankruptcy by the project of Sir John Blunt, a financier of Law's school. The national debt at this time exceeded forty millions sterling. The Bank of England and the South Sea Company each presented plans for redeeming this debt, and offered to undertake the business. The proposals of the company, which were made through Blunt, a

leading director, proved so advantageous that they were accepted by the ministry. It was in vain that Lord Cowper in one house, and Walpole in the other, prophesied that this measure would inevitably produce a commercial crisis. Parliament and people caught at it with a kind of delirium. The fallacious promises of the directors of the company and of their mercenary agents, the infamous manoeuvres of the stock-jobbers, and the avidity and credulity of the public, soon raised the hundred pound shares to the enormous price of £1000. The whole nation, without distinction of party, creed, profession, or sex, gave way to the speculative frenzy. They seemed to have forgotten everything for Blunt's scheme or other similar bubbles. The highest personages in the realm were not exempt from this wretched delusion. The Prince of Wales put his name down as governor of a Welsh copper company, and withdrew with a gambling profit of £40,000. A hundred absurd schemes were projected, which ruined a multitude of dupes. Among other joint-stock companies were some whose objects were the following:—for making salt-water fresh, for making oil out of sun-flower seeds, for extracting silver from lead, for converting mercury into a malleable metal, for trading in human hair, for importing asses from Spain, for fattening hogs, and for a perpetual motion. The sum proposed to be raised by these expedients amounted to three hundred millions sterling,—an amount exceeding the value of all the landed property in the country. The South Sea Company, whose projects had given the signal to so many follies, more particularly fascinated men's minds; but this favourable impression did not last long. Shares that in the month of August were worth £1000 fell below £300 in September, and they never rose again. Numbers connected with the share-market—bankers, brokers, and merchants—became bankrupt and fled the country, each ruining hundreds and thousands in his fall. Walpole was now appealed to by those who had rejected his advice, and he faced the storm with equal courage and patriotism. The king returned in haste from Germany, and in concert with parliament, took vigorous and efficacious measures to remedy the disorder. A committee was appointed to examine the company's accounts; the property of the directors was confiscated for the benefit of the sufferers; other means were devised for indemnifying the creditors in part; and by wise financial combinations, principally the suggestions of Walpole, public credit was restored,

and the crisis averted that had threatened England with a general bankruptcy.

6. JACOBITE PLOT.—A new parliament, the second which had been elected under the septennial act, met in 1722. The royal speech, at its opening in October, disclosed the particulars of a Jacobite plot. Many persons, among others Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, were arrested on charges of high treason; the *habeas corpus* act was suspended for a year; and a particular tax of £100,000 was laid upon the real and personal estates of the papists, to go towards the expenses occasioned by the plot, of which they were said to have been the contrivers. Mr Layer, a young barrister of the Temple, was executed at Tyburn on a charge of having enlisted men for the Pretender's service, in order to stir up a rebellion. The Bishop of Rochester was deprived of his see and banished for life. He retired to France, where he became the Pretender's confidential agent and adviser. Not long after this, Parker A.D. } earl of Macclesfield and lord-chancellor was impeached
1724 } for his notorious misdeeds. He was found guilty of enormous abuses in the exercise of his legal functions, and condemned to pay a fine of £30,000, and to remain in prison until it was discharged.

At this time, George's interests, as elector of Hanover, called him to the continent. The emperor, who was jealous of France and detested George, had established an East India Company at Ostend (a step which involved him in a quarrel with England and Holland), and concluded a treaty with Spain that was highly dangerous to England. George, fearing for the safety of his continental possessions, concluded a defensive alliance with France and Prussia. Three squadrons were put to sea; one to blockade the ports of Russia, which had acceded to the treaty of Vienna, and which was preparing an armament at Revel; the other, to watch the coasts of Spain, but with orders to abstain from any offensive act; and the third, to seize the Spanish galleons in the West Indies.

At the meeting of parliament in 1727, the king delivered a warlike speech, and the Commons voted 46,000 men, with a land-tax of four shillings in the pound for extraordinary expenses. Spain commenced hostilities by laying siege to Gibraltar; and while this strong place was holding out successfully against every attack, Fleury, who was at the head of the French government, mediated to put a stop to the war, which threatened to embroil all Europe. His exertions proved

successful, and preliminaries were signed at Paris (May 1727). By these it was stipulated that hostilities should immediately cease, that the charter of the Ostend East India Company should be suspended for seven years, and that a general congress should be opened within four months at Aix-la-Chapelle, for the settlement of all differences whatever. George I. did not live to see the definitive conclusion of the treaty. He had left England on the 3d of June, and while on the road to Osnabruck, he was seized with apoplexy in his carriage, and
 11th June } died the next day. He was in the sixty-eighth
 1727. } year of his age and the thirteenth of his reign.

The sect of the *Methodists*, a name derisively given to them from their strict regularity and method, was founded during this reign at Oxford by John Wesley. From a small college society it rapidly spread over the country, at a time when the spiritual wants of the people were very great. In 1741, the society was nearly destroyed by a difference between its Arminian founder and its Calvinistic apostle Whitefield. As yet the various congregations were all connected with the establishment, but about 1750 they seceded, at the same time expressing their reluctant difference on matters of discipline, and their unity with the church in matters of doctrine.

EXERCISES.

1. How was George I. related to the Stewart family? What branches were passed over in his favour? With what political views did he begin to reign? What was the peculiarity in his manner of convoking parliament? What consequences did it produce?
2. Who was first charged with high-treason? Whom did Lord Coningsby impeach? What was the conduct of the impeached ministers? Who intrigued with the exiled court while professing to serve the house of Hanover? Describe the proceedings about the riot act. Whose death affected the Pretender's hopes?
3. What was the conduct of the Earl of Mar? What did the Pretender do? How far was the Hanover succession in danger? What were the chief events in the rebellion? What measure was adopted to secure the continued support of parliament?
4. What induced Charles XII. to threaten an invasion? What means were adopted to obviate the danger? What office did Gyllenborg hold, and what was his conduct? What event delivered the country from danger? What warlike events occurred at this period?
5. Who had brought France and Spain to the verge of ruin? What scheme was adopted in England? Give an account of the rise and progress of the South Sea scheme. What effect had it on the country in general? What was its result?
6. What bishop was charged with high-treason? What was his subsequent history? What alliance did the king conclude for the sake of his continental dominions? How did Spain commence hostilities? What negotiations were in progress when George died? Give an account of the *Methodists*.

CHAPTER XXXII.

GEORGE II., A. D. 1727—1760.

Sir Robert Walpole—The Excise Scheme—The Patriots or Country Party—Rupture with Spain—Failure at Carthagena—Walpole's Retirement—Austrian Succession War—Battle of Dettingen—Naval Fight off Toulon—Return of Anson from the South Seas—Fontenoy—Rebellion of 1745—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle—Colony of Nova Scotia founded—Seven Years' War—Execution of Admiral Byng—Ministry of Pitt—Colonial Wars—Conquest of Canada.

1. GEORGE II. now ascended the throne. His father never entertained for him any parental affection, and had always kept him aloof from public affairs. But instead of changing his ministers, as might have been expected, the new king conferred all his influence and favour on Sir Robert Walpole, the head of the whig or *court* party, the *country* party being in opposition.

The congress, that should have terminated the work begun by the preliminaries of Paris, had met at Soissons, when unexpected obstacles sprung up. At the same time, the seizure of some English merchant vessels by the Spaniards, under the pretext that they were engaged in smuggling, had seriously excited the nation and parliament. A new rupture was feared; but by prudent negotiations this was prevented, and the treaty of Seville brought England and Spain into closer alliance (1729).

Walpole in the height of his power found an insuperable
 A. D. } opposition to an excise scheme. The frauds and evasions
 1733. } of duties charged upon tobacco and wines were so glaring, that a change in the customs laws was imperatively necessary. The excise duties, which produced above three millions a-year, were chargeable principally upon malt, salt, and the materials used in distilleries. In order to prevent fraud in the sale of tobacco, he proposed that it should be brought under the laws of excise, which were to be remodelled; that instead of paying a duty on importation, it should be kept in bonded warehouses, whence it should be taken on paying a duty of 4½d., instead of 6½d. A similar plan was to be applied to the duty on wine. Walpole's views were far-sighted: in his own words they would "make London a free port, and by consequence, the market

of the world." But the opposition cried out against a measure which they said would ruin the merchants, without preventing fraud, and burden the exchequer with the support of a multitude of excise officers and warehousemen,—all tyrants of commerce and creatures of the minister, whose number and dependent position would seriously influence the elections. The parliamentary opposition, which assumed an unusual degree of violence, but particularly the riotous meetings of the populace around the House of Commons, forced Walpole to abandon his bill. Its withdrawal was celebrated by public rejoicings in London and Westminster, and the minister was burnt in effigy.

Encouraged by this victory, the opposition in the next session called for the repeal of the septennial act. Sir William Wyndham, the tory leader, was the champion of the day, and delivered one of the most powerful specimens of parliamentary eloquence. Walpole's reply was so masterly and so triumphant in exposing the baseness of the prime mover of this question, that Bolingbroke retired to the continent.

The more Walpole braved the opposition of the *patriots*, as the tory party called themselves, the more he exposed himself to popular hatred. Day by day the keenest satires, the production of the wittiest and most experienced writers, held up his public and private conduct to general contempt. His defenders were not men of equal talent, and there seems to be an evil feeling in our hearts that delights in the censure of persons in exalted station. Walpole suffered all the penalties of power and place.

2. By the treaty of Utrecht, and subsequently by the treaty of Seville, the English had obtained permission to send one ship annually to the Spanish colonies in America, and taking advantage of this permission, they carried on an extensive system of smuggling on every part of the coast. To prevent this, the King of Spain had stationed a number of guardships, whose vigilance was often accompanied by vexatious strictness and even cruelty. The English merchants complained to parliament of these excesses: the nation partook of their resentment, and called for revenge. But Walpole was averse to war, and negotiated with Spain with a view to prevent a rupture, and at the opening of parliament in 1739, the king, in his speech from the throne, informed the two houses that he had just concluded a convention by which his catholic majesty agreed to pay £95,000 for damages to the subjects of Great

Britain. This convention likewise stipulated that plenipotentiaries should be nominated to settle definitively the American disputes, and to prevent fresh grievances. After a long and sharp debate, parliament approved of this treaty. But it was soon broken. When the time fixed for the payment of the indemnity promised by Spain had expired, Lord Bathurst made a motion to know whether the court of Madrid had fulfilled its engagements. The Duke of Newcastle replied that, without any cause being alleged for the delay, the sum agreed upon had not been received. A rupture now became inevitable, and the ministers, deeming it perilous to oppose any longer the wishes of the people, issued letters of marque and reprisal against the Spaniards, and made great naval preparations.

Oct. } These hostile demonstrations were soon followed by a
1739 } formal declaration of war.

Operations began brilliantly for the English. Admiral Vernon seized the rich city of Porto Bello, on the isthmus of Darien; and, flushed by this success, the nation indulged more and more in its warlike ardour. Parliament voted large supplies, and immense armaments covered the seas. The principal fleet, composed of twenty-nine vessels of the line, was directed against New Spain. It was under the command of Vernon, who found himself at the head of 15,000 seamen and 12,000 land troops. After many obstacles and great delay, the expedition set sail for Carthagena, the depôt of all the Spanish merchandise destined for New Spain, and whose capture would have interrupted the commerce of the mother-country with this colony. The ill feeling between the admiral and Wentworth, who commanded the land troops, and the failure of an ill-timed assault in which the English lost 600 men, together with heavy rains, and the destructive influenza of the climate, caused the enterprise to be abandoned. On the other hand, Admirals Haddock and Norris, commissioned to act directly against Spain, did not any better answer the public expectations.

3. These failures, and the damage inflicted on British commerce by the Spanish privateers, exercised overpowering influence on the elections which took place at this time. The opposition had a majority, and Walpole retired. He was rewarded by his royal master with the title of Earl of Orford. His downfall was hailed by the people with universal joy. It seemed as if all abuses would have fallen with him, and that a change of ministry would repair every misfortune and revive declining commerce. But, on the one hand, the majority of Walpole's

enemies had attacked him from interested and personal motives rather than on public principles, and as soon as they were in power, their conduct belied their patriotic language when in opposition. On the other hand, the Spanish war was continued with various success, and several expeditions were fruitlessly undertaken in the West Indies. The discontent caused by these reverses was further augmented by the war occasioned by the king's attachment to his Hanoverian possessions, and the advice of Lord Carteret, an influential minister, who had succeeded Walpole, and who, by turning the attention of the parliament and nation towards the affairs of the continent, in which he had great experience, flattered his sovereign's inclinations and opened a wide field to his own ambition. Henceforward the Spanish war became a secondary object.

The hostilities of which Germany was the theatre had followed close upon the death of the Emperor Charles VI., which took place in 1740. Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, who ought to have succeeded her father, was deprived of her inheritance by the elector of Bavaria, who was crowned emperor chiefly by French support; while the queen's hereditary dominions were conjointly attacked by France, Saxony, and Bavaria. Seeing that she was unable to withstand the formidable league against her, George II., alleging that it compromised the interests of his electorate, whose security depended on the just equilibrium of the German empire, declared for this princess, and powerfully contributed to extricate her from her difficulties. In 1743 he gained the battle of Dettingen, where he behaved with great gallantry, exposing himself to the hottest fire. In the following year the French ministers concluded, from the animosity of the parliamentary debates, and the discontent among the people, that England was ripe for a revolution, and that the presence of the Pretender, or of his son Prince Charles Edward, would be the signal for a general insurrection against the Hanoverian dynasty. Everything seemed favourable for an invasion: the English army was occupied on the continent, and the fleet scattered over the seas of Europe, Asia, and America. Prince Charles was secretly invited to pass into France from Italy, and a numerous squadron, having on board an army of 15,000 men, was prepared and placed under the orders of Marshal Saxe. But this expedition, however formidable and well combined, failed through the activity of the English, who were informed in time of the designs of France. They speedily

collected a superior force, and the elements once more protected England. The Pretender's fleet was driven back on the shores that it had left, and several vessels were lost. This expedition gave rise to a bill denouncing the penalties of high-treason against any who should keep up a correspondence with the son of the Pretender.

4. While the French failed in their project of transferring the war into England, one of their fleets, combined with a Spanish squadron, gave battle on the coast of Provence to Admirals Mathews and Lestock, and notwithstanding the inferiority of their force, came off without disgrace. This indecisive action humbled the maritime pride of England, and the admirals were tried by a court-martial. Mathews and several inferior officers were cashiered; while on the other hand the Spanish admiral, who had run away, was made a marquis for not having lost more than one ship, and the Frenchman promoted because he had not been beaten more soundly than he was. After this battle of Toulon, the British fleet did nothing of importance during the course of the year. But great was the joy manifested at the arrival of Anson, who had sailed in 1740 for the South Seas with a small squadron, designed to attack the Spanish establishments on the coasts of Chili and Peru. After an absence of more than three years, he returned with only one ship out of the whole squadron; but that was richly laden with the plunder of the city of Payta and the Spanish galleon which yearly carried the A.D. 1744. } Mexican tribute to Manilla. The treasure he brought with him amounted in value to a million and a quarter sterling.

About the same time, Lord Carteret (now Earl Granville), was displaced by a parliamentary intrigue; but there was no change of system. The Commons still continued to grant freely the supplies necessary for the war by land and sea, which was now carried on with more vigour than ever. The year 1745 was unfortunate to the English in the Low Countries, where the celebrated battle of Fontenoy threw unwonted lustre on the arms of France. But this mishap was compensated at sea. Admiral Rowley cruised triumphantly in the Mediterranean; Barnet and Townsend made several rich prizes in the East and West Indies; and Warren inflicted a decisive blow in North America by the capture of Louisbourg and the island of Cape Breton. But while England was thus conquering abroad, an intrepid and adventurous attempt of

Prince Charles Stewart perilled the existence of the Hanoverian dynasty.

The king's partiality for his German states had excited a lively discontent in England. The surname of Hanoverian had become an epithet of the most hateful kind, and "no Hanoverian king" became a frequent toast in many of the clubs and corporations. This disposition of men's minds, and the violence of the parliamentary debates, which Europe, still unaccustomed to these rhetorical contests, imagined the throne of George could not resist, with the letters which the Stewarts received from their adherents, and which, with the exaggeration of faction, described the nation as groaning under the *Elector's* yoke, and calling its legitimate princes to its deliverance, determined Charles to make another attempt for his father's restoration.

5. REBELLION OF 1745.—With seven Irish and Scotch officers, the sole confidants and first companions of his daring project, he embarked on board a fast sailing brig of eighteen guns. For an expedition in which the crown of three kingdoms was the stake, the prince took with him the small sum of £3000, about 1500 muskets, and twenty small field-pieces. Having escaped the English cruisers, he landed on the island of Erisca, on the western coast of Scotland, and ere long the

18th July } rumour of his arrival spread through the country.
1745. } A considerable number of the Highlanders, urged on by their ambitious chiefs, who had much to hope for in the re-establishment of the Stewarts, crowded to the young prince's standard, and when he reached Glenfinnan 1200 men were under his command. He now sent back the ship that had borne him to the Scottish shores, and announced to the kings of France and Spain that the people were crowding around his flag. The two kings, in their reply, entitled him their brother, and forwarded him some trifling succours. Never had the Hanoverian dynasty been more seriously threatened. George II. was on the continent; he had lost the flower of his army at Fontenoy; and in England there were barely 6000 regular troops. Two companies sent to re-enforce the garrison of Fort-William were taken prisoners; and this first success gave a new impulse to the insurrection, which now spread rapidly. Sir John Cope hurried towards the Highlands, at the head of all the disposable troops within his reach; the Pretender was outlawed, and a reward of £30,000 offered for his seizure. Charles, at the head of the Highlanders,

whose dress he had adopted, speedily traversed the districts of Athole and Badenoch, seized the important city of Perth, where he was proclaimed regent of the three kingdoms for his father James III., and then marched upon Edinburgh, which he entered without opposition. Cope now retraced his steps: Charles hastened to meet him; and a few miles to the east of Edinburgh gained the celebrated battle of Prestonpans. The English general despised his enemies as undisciplined troops, forgetting that they had all learned fighting as the daily practice of their lives. They had a peculiar way of instantly rushing forward with their drawn broadswords. If the enemy resisted this onset, they were generally driven back and overcome; but the attack was so new to the English soldiers, accustomed to the deliberate operations of disciplined armies, 21st Sept. }
1745 } that they gave way at once, and the prince gained a complete victory with the loss of only sixty men. That of the enemy amounted to 500 killed and more than 1000 prisoners, besides all their baggage, cannon, and colours.

This first success of the Jacobites so alarmed George II. for the safety of his throne, that he hastily recrossed the sea, bringing with him 6000 men from his army in Flanders, and an equal number of Dutch soldiers. After the victory at Prestonpans, the prince's first intention had been to make up for the weakness of his army by boldness and activity, and to march direct upon London. Timid counsels however, qualified by the flattering name of prudence, checked his ardour; and it was resolved to wait for the re-enforcements promised by France and expected from the Highlands. After a delay of six weeks, these additions only raised the army to the number of 6000 men, and Charles had reason to repent of having permitted the king's government to recover from its surprise and terror. Persisting, however, in his first resolution, he began his march in the beginning of November, after addressing a manifesto to the English nation, in which he declared his intention of healing the wounds of the state by liberty, toleration, and better laws passed by a free parliament. He was soon master of Carlisle and Manchester, and having by a bold 4th Dec. }
1745 } march deceived the Duke of Cumberland, who was hurrying to meet him, he advanced as far as Derby.

6. When the news of these events reached London, the consternation was so great as to obtain for that day the name of "Black Friday." All the shops and banks were closed, and it is said that the king had his yachts ready at the Tower

to sail for Holland. An exaggerated rumour prevailed that 15,000 men had joined the prince, and that 10,000 had landed to re-enforce him. In reality Charles had been joined by very few recruits in England: a French expedition, prepared at Dunkirk and Ostend, and which was to be placed under the command of the Duke of Richelieu, did not venture out in presence of the English squadron, and all that could be sent was a very unimportant succour of men and money. The prince was now threatened by three armies: one under Marshal Wade was encamped at Newcastle; a second was rapidly approaching under the orders of Cumberland; and a third at Finchley barred the road to London. In this position his council advised a retreat,—the only prudent step; and, despite his remonstrances, the Scotch army turned their faces northwards on the 6th of December. He eluded every attempt to intercept him, and at Falkirk discomfited
 17th Jan. }
 1746. } General Hawley. But as the Duke of Cumberland was now rapidly advancing at the head of a superior force, consisting of the heroes of Dettingen, Charles retired further north, and at last determined to wait for the enemy at Culloden, about four miles from Inverness. The battle began soon after mid-day on the 16th of April, and in less than half an hour the rebel army was completely routed, and the field covered with their wounded and slain to the number of 1200 men. The regular troops of the government had in fact now learned to know their enemy. They steadily received the first attack, which had broken the former armies, and then discipline as usual prevailed over reckless daring.

Cumberland made a savage use of his victory: the dispersed clans were hunted down like wild beasts, tracked to their caves in the mountains, and slaughtered with the most unrelenting cruelty. In many parts the country was so devastated that the inhabitants perished of hunger; and Cumberland fairly earned the name of *Butcher*, by which he was designated in Scotland, and the people of England ratified the title. More than 200 persons perished on the scaffold: the unfortunate Prince Charles was hunted from place to place, and during five months he wandered among the forests, mountains, and islands of Scotland. At length he sailed from the very spot where he had landed fourteen months before, and reached France in safety. The episcopal clergy, who were in general Jacobites, falling under the displeasure of the government, suffered more severely than they had done from the presby-

terians of their own country, whom they had so deeply exasperated in the reigns of Charles II. and his brother; and while in England episcopacy was the religion of the government and the court, in Scotland it was subjected, for long after this period, to restrictions so severe, that the clergy were constrained to perform their functions in secret. After the battle of Culloden, some useful regulations were made for the future tranquillity of Scotland; and among others, the chieftains were deprived of their power of judging and punishing the members of their clans, and both lord and vassal were brought under the general laws of the kingdom. The local judges, called sheriffs, whose authority was extensive, held their offices, like their estates, by hereditary descent. When men enjoyed the power of judging their fellow-creatures as a piece of property, it was not possible that justice could be administered correctly, or the public peace preserved. These offices were no longer to be hereditary, and the appointment to them was vested in the crown.

7. During the heroic and bloody episode of this rebellion, the battle of Roucoux had laid the Low Countries at the feet of Louis, and in the East Indies, his flag, after the defeat of an English fleet, had been planted on the walls of Madras by Labourdonnais, who secured a booty of £640,000. In the following year his troops threatened Holland; the allies were thoroughly beaten at Lauffeld, and the strong fortress of Bergen-op-Zoom surrendered, by which the French became masters of the navigation of the Scheldt. The English counterbalanced these checks by the success of their fleet, which, in 1747, destroyed several French squadrons and made numerous rich prizes.

The exhaustion of the resources of all parties at length led to a cessation of hostilities. After a vast amount of treasure had been wasted and lives lost, it was agreed by the treaty of A. D. } Aix-la-Chapelle to restore their conquests on both sides.
1748. } The English beheld with sorrow the restitution of Cape Breton and of their other maritime conquests; and they found that the only result of a long and obstinate contest was the augmentation of the national debt to eighty millions sterling. They complained that the right of navigating the American seas without being liable to a search by the Spanish cruisers,—a right which was the chief source of the disputes between England and Spain,—was not even mentioned in the treaty. But the hope of a revival of commerce, and of being speedily

relieved from the oppressive weight of taxation, sweetened the bitterness of a dishonourable treaty, and induced the people to congratulate themselves on its conclusion.

The government and the parliament hastened to realize the expectations of the nation by wholesome commercial regulations. Among other things they turned their attention to the fisheries, from which Holland had drawn so much wealth. Besides the commercial profits that might be expected, they hoped to make them a nursery for seamen. A bounty of twenty shillings a-ton was granted to every vessel fitted out for the whale-fishery on the coast of Spitzbergen; and this fishery has ever since been carried on with activity and success.

The reduction of the army at the peace having left a great number of discharged soldiers without the means of subsistence, government undertook to promote emigration to Acadia or Nova Scotia,—an extensive territory which France had yielded by the treaty of Utrecht. Every sailor or soldier who emigrated received a free grant of fifty acres of land for ten years, and the officers, according to their rank, from eighty to six hundred acres. About 4000 adventurers were tempted by these offers: by them the city of Halifax was built; but for a long time the existence of the colony remained in a precarious condition.

8. The peace between France and England was not destined to be of long duration. Hostilities had not ceased in the East Indies, and although the two nations did not appear as principals, they were often engaged as auxiliaries in the quarrels of the native princes. In America mutual invasions of the ill defined limits of the respective colonies were a constant source of strife. In 1751, commissioners were appointed on both sides to regulate the matters in dispute, but with little success. In 1755, the English commenced hostilities in America on four several points, and in a short time 300 French merchant vessels and 8000 seamen were brought into British harbours.

SEVEN YEARS' WAR.—The beginning of the war had not been favourable to the English in America, most of their attempts against the French establishments having failed; nor was it more prosperous in Europe. A French army, commanded by Marshal Richelieu, took the island of Minorca, which Admiral Byng, who was tardily despatched to re-enforce the garrison, arrived too late to succour. While

lying off Port Mahon, La Galissonière with the French fleet came in sight, and a partial engagement took place; after which Byng drew off, and retired to Gibraltar (18th May). The brave old Blakeney held out in Fort Saint Philip until the beginning of July, when he capitulated on honourable terms, for which he was created an Irish lord. Meanwhile Byng was put under arrest and brought home for trial; and so great was the exasperation of the people against him, that a strong guard with difficulty preserved him from being torn in pieces. The court-martial was engaged during a whole month with this important case, and by its verdict Byng was condemned to die for not having done his utmost to take, seize, and destroy the ships of the enemy; at the same time he was recommended to the king's mercy. Byng met his fate with courage, leaving an indelible reproach both on the
 A.D. } ministers who were the cause of his failure, and on those
 1757. } who had not virtue enough to withstand the blind passions of the multitude.

Hostilities, which began at sea, soon spread to the continent of Europe. The French invaded the electorate of Hanover, and the King of Prussia received a subsidy from England to aid in defending that country. The same monarch had also to defend himself against Maria Theresa, who desired to recover Silesia, and who was supported by France, Saxony, Sweden, and Russia.

COLONIAL WARS.—In America the French had three principal objects in view: to cut off all communication, whether of commerce or alliance, between the English and the native Indians, the allies or dependents of France; to confine the English within their ancient boundaries by forts constructed within the French territory; and to keep up a correspondence between Canada and Louisiana by the chain of lakes which communicated between the two provinces. The object of the English was to counteract these three plans. In 1756, Britain lost Fort Oswego, which had been built in time of peace on the French territory; in the next year, the French burnt all the English shipping on the lakes, thus becoming masters of this great line of communication. They also captured Fort William, while the English failed in an expedition against Louisbourg. At home a numerous fleet, destined to act against the coasts of France and destroy the vessels in the docks of Rochefort, returned after doing little more than occupying and plundering the small island of Aix at the mouth

of the Charente. They were not more successful in Germany, where they lost the battle of Hastenbeck, and were compelled to submit to the humiliating convention of Closter-Seven. But fortune was more propitious in the East. The English defeated the Soubah of Bengal, and wrested from the French the factory of Chandernagore, one of their most important establishments in India. Immense wealth and one hundred and eighty pieces of artillery rewarded the bravery of the captors.

9. CONQUEST OF CANADA.—Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, was now at the head of affairs, and his energy, though often ill directed, soon changed the course of events. In 1758, victory returned to the English standard in America. The French lost Cape Breton and the island of Saint John (now Prince Edward); but repulsed the English with severe loss from Ticonderago,—a success soon compensated by the loss of Fort Frontenac, the centre of Indian commerce, and of Fort Duquesne shortly after. In the next year, General Johnson reduced Fort Niagara, the most important post in French America, as it overawed the Indians of the Six Nations, secured the navigation of the great lakes and the communication between Canada and Louisiana, and opened a passage into the British territories. General Amherst marched against the Forts of Crown Point and Ticonderago, which he found abandoned and destroyed. Finally, General Wolfe laid siege to Quebec, and after a bold manœuvre, by which he gained possession of a height commanding the city, forced Montcalm to hazard a battle. Both commanders were mortally wounded during the engagement. Quebec fell into the hands of the British, Montreal was taken not long after, and the whole of Canada was soon reduced (1759).

While conquest was crowning the exertions of the British in the New World, at home they had baffled a formidable project of invasion, and by the destruction of the fleet in Quiberon Bay by Admiral Sir E. Hawke, had completely annihilated the maritime power of France. Yet if the splendour of such unprecedented successes flattered their pride, the expense with which they were accompanied began to weigh heavily upon them. The German war, in which a small British contingent contributed to the victory of Minden, proved very burdensome, and they eagerly wished for its termination. Such were the feelings of the people, 25th Oct. }
1760. } when George II. suddenly expired, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and thirty-fourth of his reign.

This was the age of philosophy; but England, too much engrossed by material pursuits, yielded less than the continental states to the new direction communicated to the human mind. Yet the poetic annals of this reign are rich in treasures, and more than one poet has escaped oblivion. Pope, Young, Thomson, Gray, Akenside, Armstrong, Glover, Mallet, Home, Cibber, Mason, the two Whiteheads, the two Wartons, Littleton, and Collins, are names well known in the various walks of poesy. Fielding and Richardson added fresh lustre to prose fiction; and in history there are the works of Guthrie, Ralph, Robertson, and Hume. Nor were the fine arts neglected, although their influence as yet was very trifling.

EXERCISES.

1. Whom did George II. retain as minister? What treaty was negotiated? Describe the nature of the measure which Walpole wished to bring in, but which was strongly opposed. Who was the leader of the opposition to Walpole? How was the opposition conducted?
2. Describe the circumstances which produced a dispute with Spain. How was it accommodated? What produced a final rupture? How did the warlike operations begin? What was the result of the expedition to Carthage?
3. What was the political effect of the failures in the war? What was expected from the removal of Walpole from power? How were the expectations disappointed? Give an account of the circumstances which induced Britain to take part with Maria Theresa. With what expedition was Britain threatened?
4. What was the result of the sea-fight in which Mathews and Lestock were engaged? How was it received in Britain, France, and Spain? What did Lord Anson accomplish? What events took place in the farther progress of the war? What made the king unpopular?
5. Describe the circumstances in which Prince Charles Edward landed in Britain? What effect had the rumour of his arrival? What circumstances placed the nation in great risk from this attempt? Describe the progress of the rebellion. How did the Highlanders fight? How far did the insurgents advance into England?
6. What was called the "Black Friday"? In what circumstances did the prince retreat? Where did the Duke of Cumberland gain a victory? What use did he make of it? What title did he earn by his cruelty? How were the episcopal clergy treated? Give an account of some reforms in the administration of justice which followed the rebellion.
7. What successes did the French obtain in India and the continent? What treaty was concluded in 1748? How did it give discontent in this country? What measures were taken to encourage industry? What plan was adopted for the disposal of discharged soldiers and sailors?
8. How was the peace affected by proceedings in India and America? What was the cause of the charges against Byng? What was his fate? What hostilities took place in Europe? What were the main objects of the French in America? Give an account of the course of the war there. What success had the British in Europe? What did they achieve in India?
9. What great minister changed the course of events? Mention the successes of the British troops. Who were mortally wounded at the capture of Quebec? What annihilated the maritime power of France? Give the names of celebrated authors of the reign of George II.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

GEORGE III. TO THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR, A. D. 1760—1783.

Eastern Conquests—The Family Compact—The Bute Ministry—Peace of Paris—Wilkes and the North Briton—The Stamp Act—Disturbances in the North American Colonies—Ministry of Lord North—Revolt of the Colonies—War of Independence—Surrender of Lord Cornwallis.

1. THE Prince of Wales, the son of the late king, having died in 1751, George II. was succeeded by his grandson, the eldest son of that prince, by the title of George III. At the death of his predecessor the national debt amounted to more than one hundred millions sterling, which, however, did not prevent hostilities from being continued in the new reign with increased vigour. The people now began to look upon it as a dishonourable thing to lay aside their arms until they were in a condition to dictate peace and preserve all their conquests.

A. D. 1761. } The English took Belleisle on the coast of France; while, by the capture of Pondicherry, the French power was destroyed in the east, as by that of Quebec and Montreal it had been ruined in America. In this favourable posture the English ministry listened to propositions of peace from Louis. Plenipotentiaries were named to regulate the bases and conditions of an arrangement. But at the same time the *Family Compact* was negotiating between France and Spain, by which the court of Madrid, laying aside the neutrality which it had observed during the war, engaged itself to take up arms in behalf of France. Pitt, who still continued at the head of the ministry, having gained secret information of this treaty, immediately proposed in council to anticipate the designs of Spain by a prompt declaration of war. But the majority, alleging the exhausted condition of the national resources, the great advantages derived from the Spanish trade, and their uncertainty with regard to the hostile disposition of his catholic majesty, were of a contrary opinion. The haughty minister could not bear contradiction, and he resigned his office. After his retirement, the very measure that he had proposed was adopted. War was declared against

Spain, which in a short time lost Havannah and Manilla, A. D. } while the French were deprived of Martinique, Grenada, 1762. } St Vincent, and St Lucia. The reverses of these two powers soon inclined them to sue for peace. The Earl of Bute, the favourite of the king, and now prime minister, was desirous that hostilities should cease, and notwithstanding the exertions of Pitt and his party, preliminaries of peace were drawn up in a few weeks between France, Spain, and England, and definitively signed at Paris in the month of February 1763. This treaty, the benefits of which were mostly on the side of England, was counterbalanced by a national debt now increased to 139 millions sterling. Shortly after, by the peace of Hubertsburg, the seven years' war was terminated in Germany, and the pacification of Europe complete.

2. JOHN WILKES.—The treaty of 1763 (known as that of Fontainebleau) excited great discontent in France, and did not satisfy England, where a violent outcry was raised against Lord Bute for having yielded part of Newfoundland, and abandoned the King of Prussia. A tax upon cider, which the minister proposed to parliament, to pay the interest of a new loan rendered necessary by the enormous expenses of the late war, increased the general irritation. This tax, in spite of the efforts of the opposition, the clamour of the public, and the violence of the pamphleteers, was approved of by the Commons. The bill had scarcely passed when, to the great surprise of all, Bute tendered his resignation. He was succeeded by Mr George Grenville, who with his coadjutors were said to be mere puppets in the hands of the retired minister. Party spirit now burst out with fresh violence, and the press almost daily issued the most scandalous libels against the government. The most notorious of all these writings was a paper styled *THE NORTH BRITON*, set on foot by John Wilkes, the member for Aylesbury. In number 45, published about a fortnight after Bute's resignation, the editor charged the king with having uttered a direct falsehood in his speech at the prorogation of parliament. Upon this a general warrant was issued, and Wilkes was apprehended. The warrant was called general, because it did not give the precise names of the persons against whom it was issued, but described them generally as the "authors, printers, and publishers" of a certain work. After a short confinement in the Tower he was brought before the judges by writ of *habeas corpus*, and released on the ground that he had not forfeited his privilege

as a member of the House of Commons. When parliament met in November, the paper was declared a seditious libel, and condemned to be burnt by the hands of the common hangman. Wilkes afterwards brought an action against the secretaries of state for false imprisonment, when Lord Chief-justice Pratt declared general warrants illegal, and the jury awarded damages to the extent of £1000. The pretended patriot, who had retired to France, was expelled from the House of Commons. At the elections in 1768 he was thrice returned for the county of Middlesex without opposition, and as often his election was declared invalid. At a fourth election, although he had a majority of more than eight hundred over his opponent Colonel Luttrell, the ministerial candidate, he was again rejected by the Commons, who declared Luttrell to have been duly elected.

3. THE STAMP ACT.—While this contest between the Commons and the constituency of Middlesex was raging, the seeds of dissension were sown between England and her American colonies, which were destined to bear a harvest of sorrow for the mother-country. In 1764, Grenville, with a view of alleviating the oppressive taxation by an increase in the customs, endeavoured to put an end to smuggling by means of a number of small vessels of war continually cruising on the coasts of England and Ireland. He soon extended this measure to America, and under the pretence of making these colonies defray a portion of the expenses for the protection of their commerce, and the prevention of contraband trade, he imposed certain dues on all merchandise imported into America. He next proposed laying a direct tax upon the colonies, and on the 22d of March 1765, after a long and stormy discussion, the famous *Stamp Act* received the king's assent. The colonists loudly protested against this impost, and asserted that parliament had no right to tax them, as they were not represented in that body. Now that time has softened down all differences, and that much secret information has come to light, there can be little doubt that the abstract theory of the inseparability of taxation and representation did not weigh with the Americans so much as the interruption to their extensive and contraband trade with the Spanish colonies; and it may further be added, in the words of Mr Grenville, that "The seditious spirit of the colonies owed its birth to the factions in the House of Commons." Massachusetts was the first to show its discontent by acts of

violence, and give to the other colonies the signal of resistance. It further invited them to meet in a general congress to concert measures for defending their rights against the mother-country. It was now that the Grenville ministry fell a victim to its unpopularity and to a court intrigue, and was replaced by that to which the Marquis of Rockingham gave his name. Between the partisans and the adversaries of the taxation of the colonies, the new administration took a middle course, which satisfied no one. It revoked the stamp A. D. } act, but at the same time maintained the principle of 1766. } colonial taxation. This ministry was of short duration, and, in the month of July, Pitt was called upon to form a new cabinet; but, being composed of men of all parties, it was as divided in its plans and feeble in its action as its predecessor. Labouring under disease, and frequently unable to attend to public affairs, the great statesman refused the chief place in the cabinet with the leadership in the Commons, the scene of his triumphs, and would only accept the office of privy-seal, which compelled his removal to the House of Lords, where he took his seat with the title of Earl of Chatham. About the end of 1768, feeling his strength daily wasting away, and disapproving, it is said, of the tax imposed by his colleagues on tea, glass, paper, and colours imported into the American colonies, he retired from the ministry. He was succeeded by Lord North, who repealed all these duties except that upon tea. It was not, however, the amount of the imposts, for that was inconsiderable, but the principle upon which they were based, which the colonies set forth as the chief grievance, and they determined to thwart the calculations of the ministers by renouncing the use of tea.

4. REVOLT OF THE COLONIES.—Towards the close of 1773, two ships arrived at Boston with cargoes of tea, which Lord North had allowed the East India Company to export from England duty free. One evening a number of armed men, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships and flung their contents into the sea. The severe measures taken against the inhabitants of this city accelerated the revolt of the colonies. This they had prefaced by a declaration of rights issued by the general congress assembled at Philadelphia. Such a step was of itself a declaration of war, and the colonists prepared to vindicate their cause by arms, appointing George Washington commander-in-chief of their military forces. Conciliatory measures were tried in vain: the colo-

nists persevered in their rebellion ; indeed, they had committed several overt acts of war, and hostilities may be said to have regularly commenced at Lexington, in April 1775, when a body of British troops, which had been employed to destroy some warlike stores, was attacked by the Americans.

The colonies now eagerly prepared for war, and took the necessary measures for raising an army, at the same time issuing a large paper currency for its payment. On the 17th of June 1775, a bloody engagement took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boston, in which the royal troops were victorious, but with the loss of 1100 men killed and wounded. An expedition was next undertaken by the insurgents against Canada, under the conduct of Richard Montgomerie, a commander of considerable military skill. He attempted to take Quebec by storm, but was killed in the attack, while Arnold his colleague was severely wounded. The assailants were repulsed at all points, and soon afterwards obliged to make a precipitate retreat before the royal army, which speedily recovered the whole province.

In the meantime, the British force under General Howe at Boston being bombarded by the Americans, and reduced to great distress, was obliged to sail for Halifax, leaving behind a considerable quantity of stores and artillery. On the 4th of July 1776, the congress published their declaration of independence, and the colonies assumed the title of "The United States of America." An attack was soon afterwards made upon Charleston in South Carolina, but the Americans under General Lee defended themselves so ably that the British were obliged to retire with considerable slaughter.

5. WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.—In the month of August, General Howe landed 30,000 troops on Long Island, and inflicted great loss on the enemy, who however, though overpowered and surrounded, made a masterly retreat, and escaped during the night with their baggage and stores and part of their artillery. The result of these operations was the abandonment of New York and the surrender of Fort Washington and Fort Lee, which compelled the American general to retreat to the river Delaware, a distance of nearly ninety miles. The royal troops followed : Rhode Island was taken possession of, as well as all the American forts, and General Howe might have advanced on Philadelphia and finished the war, but was prevented by orders from home. This delay allowed time for Washington to recruit his shattered forces. In the

middle of winter, he surprised a body of Hessians at Trenton, taking 900 prisoners and 1000 stand of arms. The British immediately prepared to attack him, but he again eluded them, and removed from the ground with his baggage and artillery.

In September 1777, two important actions were gained by the British, which led to the surrender of Philadelphia. But this success was counterbalanced by the disastrous expedition from Quebec under General Burgoyne, who, after some partial advantages, was surrounded and compelled to surrender.

France now began to take part with the republicans, and to supply them with arms and ammunition. A number of French officers entered the American service, and in February 1778, an alliance was entered into between Louis and the United States. The people of Great Britain now began to be alarmed at the fatal tendency of the war, and commissioners were appointed to settle the disputes between the mother-country and her colonies; but congress would listen to no terms unless the independence of the States were previously acknowledged and the hostile troops withdrawn. The war was therefore continued, and hostilities commenced against France and Spain in consequence of their having afforded aid to the revolted colonies.

In May 1780, Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of the important town of Charleston, and Lord Cornwallis obtained a signal victory over General Gates; yet none of these events promised a speedy termination of the war. Cornwallis was soon after obliged to retreat 200 miles to Wilmington, where his situation at length became very critical. By a variety of judicious manœuvres, Washington prevented him from receiving assistance from Sir Henry Clinton the commander-in-chief, and he was closely invested in York Town by the American army and the French fleet. In October the trenches were opened with a large train of artillery; the British works were demolished by the enemy's batteries; the troops, enfeebled by constant fatigue, were cut off by the sword and by sickness, and his lordship was ultimately compelled to surrender himself and his whole army as prisoners of war. England, having now lost all hope of reducing her colonies to obedience, recognised their independence, and the definitive treaty was concluded at Versailles on the 3d of September 1783.

For some years previous to this period, the American war constituted the chief part of the history of Britain; the other

events of any moment being a slight rupture with Spain about the Falkland Islands, which remained in the possession of Britain, and a plot to destroy by fire the naval dock-yard at Portsmouth in 1776,—the perpetrator of which was discovered and hanged.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the amount of the national debt at the death of George II.? What was the popular feeling about war? What compact was discovered by Pitt? How did he act on the discovery? What were the chief events in his war?

2. How was the treaty of 1763 named? How was it received by the public? Describe the various causes of party irritation at this time. What was the nature of the publication edited by Wilkes? In what legal proceedings was he successful? What attempts were made to expel him from parliament?

3. What was the origin of the discontents in America? What was the effect of the Stamp Act? Where did violence begin? What was the course taken by the Grenville ministry? Describe the conduct of Pitt at this period. Who was his successor?

4. Describe the occurrences at Boston on the arrival of the cargoes of tea. Whom did the Americans appoint their commander? Where did hostilities commence? What was the result of the battle of Bunker's Hill? How did the expedition against Quebec terminate? What document was published by congress? What title did they assume for their country?

5. Describe the progress of the war after the landing of General Howe till the French took part in it. What measures towards a compromise were taken by Britain? How were they received? What occurred from this circumstance to the recognition of the independence of the United States? What is the date of the treaty?

CHAPTER XXXIV.

FROM THE END OF THE AMERICAN WAR TO THE TREATY OF AMIENS, A. D. 1780—1802.

The No-Popery Riots—Coalition Ministry—William Pitt—Irish Volunteers—Impeachment of Warren Hastings—The King's first Illness—Nootka Sound Dispute—The French Revolution—The Birmingham Riots—Dr Priestley—War with France—Lord Howe's Victory—Trial of Horne Tooke—War with Spain—Battles of Saint Vincent and Camperdown—Suspension of Cash Payments—Mutiny of the Fleet—Irish Rebellion—Battle of the Nile—The Union of Ireland—The Armed Neutrality—Battle of Copenhagen—Peace of Amiens.

1. THE assistance given by the French government to the Americans in their struggle for independence has already

been mentioned. There was peace at the time between Britain and France, but the government of Louis XVI. could not omit so favourable an opportunity of injuring England, forgetting how dangerous an example they were setting for their own country in helping a people to throw off their allegiance and become a republic. They suffered for their short-sighted policy, and the Revolution of 1789 was owing in a great measure to this ill-timed alliance. In after years, Louis XVI. said to his ministers: "I never think of the affair of America without regret. My youth was taken advantage of at that time, and we are suffering for it now. The lesson is too severe to be forgotten." This treaty, which has been called "the king's death-warrant," was the immediate cause of war between France and England, much to the injury of the former country. In 1779, Spain joined the confederacy, and Holland in 1780. Against all these enemies, Great Britain made vigorous exertions. In 1780, Rodney defeated the Spanish fleet under Langara off Cape Saint Vincent, and in 1782 the French fleet under De Grasse in the West Indies, by which victories the dominion of the sea was once more restored to the British flag. The united efforts of France and Spain against Gibraltar proved a decided failure, chiefly owing to the intrepidity and firmness of Governor Elliot.

NO-POPERY RIOTS.—The year 1780 was remarkable for a violent demonstration against the Roman-catholics, caused by an act of parliament "for relieving his majesty's subjects professing the Romish religion from certain penalties." This enactment roused the Scots, and an Edinburgh mob burnt a chapel and several houses belonging to the professors of the obnoxious faith. The flame spread to England; and Lord George Gordon, a man of eccentric habits and disordered intellect, was made president of the Protestant Association. On the 2d of June, 50,000 men accompanied him in procession to the House of Commons, to support an anti-popery petition subscribed by 120,000 persons. A scene of unparalleled riot and confusion took place in the house and its precincts. Several members of parliament with difficulty escaped with their lives; but the Commons remained firm, and some troops having arrived in the evening, the mob began to disperse. As they retired, they demolished two chapels belonging to the Bavarian and Sardinian embassies. On the following evening a riot took place in Moorfields; and on Sunday a popish chapel and several private houses were destroyed, the lord

mayor, either from imbecility or cowardice, taking no active measures to stop these excesses. During the next three days, the city remained in the hands of the mob; not, indeed, of those who had begun the disturbance, but of those outcasts of society so abundant in every large city. All the prisons were broken open and destroyed by fire, and numerous private houses were treated in the same manner. On Wednesday night (7th June), six and thirty fires were blazing in different quarters of the metropolis. The king now took upon himself a responsibility from which his ministers shrank, and authorized the military to act without the usual formalities. The mob, which had appeared irresistible, was soon dispersed, but not before 210 persons had been killed and 248 wounded. By the end of the week all was quiet, and Lord George Gordon was committed to the Tower on a charge of high-treason. The lord mayor was prosecuted for his negligence, and convicted: fifty-nine of the chief rioters were found guilty, of whom twenty-five were executed, and the rest transported for life.

2. When the preliminaries of peace were laid before parliament, so violent a storm was raised against the ministers, that several of them retired; and it was then that the famous coalition ministry was formed. Among its members were North, Fox, Cavendish, Keppel, Burke, and others,—all men of different political principles, but who made no alteration in the articles of the treaty. The affairs of India were the ruin of this extraordinary compound. The East India Company needed reform, and Fox was desirous of the honour of this great undertaking. Accordingly, in the month of November 1783, he brought in the famous India bills, which, although putting an end to many disorders, infringed greatly on the royal authority. In despite of a strenuous opposition, and after protracted discussions, at that time very unusual (the house not dividing on the second reading until half-past four in the morning), the bill passed the Commons and was carried up to the Lords. Here the resistance was still more energetic, Lord Thurlow declaring, that if the bills passed, the king would in fact take the crown from his own head and place it on the head of Mr Fox. The ministers were defeated, and the next day the king dismissed his cabinet. William Pitt, the son of Lord Chatham, though only in his twenty-fifth year, was put at the head of the new ministry, and appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. In the following year, the youthful minister suc-

A. D. }
1784 } cceeded with his bill for modifying the constitution of the East India Company.

The example of the American colonists was not lost upon Ireland. In the autumn of 1783, a number of delegates from Ulster met at Dungannon for the purpose of reforming the Irish parliament. The province of Leinster followed a similar course; and in November a convention of protestant volunteers from every county assembled at the rotunda in Dublin to remodel the constitution. This rival parliament endeavoured to overawe the legitimate body, and the volunteers, who had been armed by the government during the American war to repel invasion, continued their military training. In January 1785, a new body, entitled the National Congress, met at Dublin, and their proceedings were a mere imitation of the conduct of the Americans, with the addition of permanent corresponding committees. In order to redress the commercial grievances complained of, Pitt brought in his Irish trade bill, establishing a free trade on mutual exchange between the two countries. With some slight alterations, this bill was passed; but it was strongly opposed by the Irish parliament, and ultimately relinquished.

3. WARREN HASTINGS.—Although the history of our Indian colonies will be treated of elsewhere, we may here notice the impeachment of Warren Hastings, for high crimes and misdemeanours during his administration at Calcutta. In 1773, the "Regulating Act" came into operation in England, and under it one of the first duties of government was to nominate the governor-general. The choice fell upon Mr Warren Hastings, at the very time when Lord Clive was subjected to an inquiry scarcely less notorious than that by which his own eastern career was to terminate. From 1773 to 1785 Hastings conducted the Indian government with prudence and success; but on his return home, a prosecution was raised against him at the instigation of Sir Philip Francis, one of the members of the governor's council. In 1786, Burke laid before the Commons nine charges, afterwards increased to twenty-two, against Hastings, and after two years had been consumed in preliminary matters, the House of Lords assembled in Westminster Hall to try the impeachment. The heads of the accusation most relied upon were four:—the oppression of the Rajah of Benares; the maltreatment and robbery of the begums and princesses of Oude; and the charges of receiving presents, and conniving at unfair contracts and ex-

travagant expenditure. Mr Burke opened the case with a most eloquent speech which lasted three days, and he was assisted by Sheridan, Fox, Grey, and others. Three years were occupied by the case for the prosecution, and in 1791 Mr Hastings began his defence, which was protracted until the 23d of April 1795, when he was acquitted on every article by a very large majority.

Hastings had returned home comparatively poor. After a residence of thirty years in India, during thirteen of which he had been governor-general, his fortune did not exceed £130,000,—a large portion of which was expended in law and other expenses during his lengthened prosecution. As some compensation for his losses, the company granted him an annuity of £4000, and lent him £50,000 for eighteen years without interest. He retired altogether from public life, to an estate which he purchased in Worcestershire, and died in 1818, a short time after he had been raised to the dignity of a privy councillor.

In the autumn of 1788, rumours began to be circulated that the king was afflicted with mental derangement, and on the 5th of November concealment of the monarch's real condition became no longer possible. In this incapacity of the first branch of the legislature, it was necessary to take immediate measures for supplying the royal authority. Long and violent debates took place on the subject of a regency; Fox and his party claiming it for the Prince of Wales, the heir-apparent, as a matter of *right*, without the previous consent of parliament; while Pitt insisted that the heir-apparent had no more right to the executive power in this case than any other subject in the realm. The latter opinion prevailed with parliament; but during the discussions on the course to be adopted and the limitations to be imposed on the regent, the king recovered. The joy of the people was universal at this welcome change, for his dreadful malady had only increased their sympathy for the "good old king," as he was already called. This illness was one of the causes that led to the union of the Irish legislature with that of England, the former body having unconditionally conferred the regency on the Prince of Wales.

Several years of peace had now been enjoyed, during which the public revenue increased, commerce and manufactures were extended, and the general prosperity of the people was augmented. This state of tranquillity was, however, endangered in 1789, by the Spaniards taking possession of the

small settlement of Nootka Sound, on the north-west coast of America, where they pulled down the British flag and hoisted the Spanish in its place. After some unavailing negotiations, both parties vigorously prepared for war, when Spain at last yielded, and agreed to make reparation for the injury sustained. The folly of going to war about an insignificant settlement on a distant coast was ridiculed then, as similar instances have been sneered at before and since; yet, independently of the necessity of a port in those distant seas for the accommodation of our numerous merchant-ships, it was a gross insult upon the national honour. In the words of Mr, afterwards Lord, Grey, "this national honour is not a visionary thing: a nation without honour is a nation without power. In losing this one inestimable attribute, it inevitably loses the genuine spring of its spirit, energy, and action. Every nation, therefore, ought to be vigilantly careful of its honour; lest by one mean submission, it encourage an attack upon the dignity of its character,—the best security for the preservation of peace."

4. The tranquillity of Europe and of the world was disturbed by the breaking out of the French Revolution in 1789. In a very short space of time the government of France was overthrown; the king and queen were guillotined, and Christianity was disavowed. The pen of the most eloquent historian could but faintly describe the horrors that ensued, the torrents of blood that were shed on the scaffold or in civil strife, and the universal depravity that pervaded the nation. At length the furious flood burst its banks, and threatened the adjoining countries. It must be admitted, however, that they did not show sufficient caution. Their kings thought more of Louis XVI. and his rights than of the French people. The Emperor of Austria especially manifested a determination to restore the kingly authority to its old state. He professed to despise the republicans as an undisciplined rabble, who would at once be brought to a sense of their duty by his imperial troops,—an arrogance which afterwards was the cause of his bitter humiliation.

BIRMINGHAM RIOTS.—Differences of opinion on the subject of the events in France created violent animosities in this country. Many people continuing to sympathize with the republicans—others, and they were by far the larger and more popular party, began to draw from their excesses opinions hostile to every change; and it may safely be said that the French Revolution postponed the progress of rational reform,

at the head of which Pitt himself was enrolled, for nearly half a century. An event occurred which, in the person of the philosopher Priestley, showed the unpopularity of those who sympathized with the republicans. He had for some time been declining in favour with the people of Birmingham, where he resided, when, on the 14th of July 1791, a few of his friends met at a dinner held in celebration of the taking of the Bastile. A false report of the toasts which were drunk roused to violence a number of the inhabitants, who attacked the house where they were assembled, and drove them from the table. The mob, gaining courage from their victory over this small body, and from the circumstance of no troops being in the town, next proceeded to burn down two dissenting meeting-houses, and afterwards sacked and fired Dr Priestley's house, and the dwellings of all who were supposed to be opposed to the established order of things in church and state. Other excesses occurred, but no blood was shed; and after four days of anarchy, the tumult was suppressed by a small body of horse from Nottingham.

FRENCH WAR.—In 1792, Mr Pitt made a most encouraging statement of the national prosperity, the income greatly surpassing the expenditure; and as if to confirm the blindness of the wisest politicians of the age, he asserted, that “unquestionably there never was a time when a durable peace might more reasonably be expected than at the present moment.” But this delusion was of brief duration. The execution of Louis XVI. in January 1793, and the previous opening of the navigation of the Scheldt, contrary to treaty, by the French troops in Holland, made neutrality impossible: the French envoy was ordered to quit the country, and France declared war against England on the 1st of February. The presumption of the dominant party in France had reached such a pitch, that probably under no circumstances could hostilities have long been delayed; and there can be little doubt that the English ministry were not averse to a war ostensibly waged in defence of public order and of the rights of nations.

A British army was immediately sent to the Netherlands, under the command of the Duke of York, to co-operate with the Austrians and Prussians. From disunion in their councils and incapacity in their commanders, the combined armies were unable to resist the French, and the duke, after great losses, was compelled to return to England. This failure was in a measure compensated by Lord Howe, who, on the 1st of June

1794, gained a signal victory over the French fleet at Ushant, when two ships were sunk, two burnt, and six captured.

5. From 1793 to 1795 many state prosecutions were carried on against persons who were charged with attempts to subvert the government, and imitate the French revolutionists. In England these trials were generally defeated, for, however unpopular were the principles of the persons accused, liberty of opinion and the integrity of jury trial were considered of more importance than the suppression of dangerous sentiments. Thus the celebrated philologist John Horne Tooke, when tried for treason in 1794, was acquitted. The ministry were more fortunate in their trials in Scotland, where, through defects in the jury system, convictions were obtained against Thomas Muir and others, who were sentenced to transportation.

For the next two years England was little more than a spectator in the affairs of the continent, until Spain, in 1797, took part with France, already in possession of all the naval resources of Holland. The Spanish fleet was defeated off Cape St Vincent by Sir John Jervis in February, and the Dutch fleet by Duncan off Camperdown in October. Thus England single-handed, for Austria and Prussia had made peace with France, was enabled to maintain her supremacy on the ocean.

MUTINY OF THE FLEET.—The same year was remarkable at home by the restriction of cash-payments by the Bank of England, and the mutinies at Spithead and the Nore. The former was occasioned by the threatened invasion by France,—an attempt considered very probable after the unexampled success of the French arms on the continent. Alarm spread through the country, and a run was made upon the bank for gold in exchange for its notes. As the resources of this establishment were insufficient to meet so great and sudden a call, an order in council authorized it to suspend cash-payments. The mutiny among the seamen was of a more serious nature. It broke out at Spithead, where the sailors demanded an increase of pay and the redress of various grievances. When these were granted, order was immediately restored; but the flame soon burst forth again at the Nore, where the mutineers, upon the refusal of their demands, blockaded the mouth of the Thames. This was indeed a critical moment for the maritime existence of England; but the firmness of the government prevailed, and discipline was restored. The ringleaders, of whom Richard Parker, a young seaman of considerable ability, was the chief, were tried and executed.

IRISH REBELLION.—In 1798, a fierce rebellion broke out in Ireland, at the instigation of a disaffected party who were in communication with France. The counties of Wexford and Wicklow were its chief theatre, and became a horrible scene of contention and slaughter. The strong position of the rebels at Vinegar Hill was taken after a desperate and bloody struggle: a large body was driven out of Wexford; and a number of their leaders, including several men of rank and station, were taken and executed.

6. BATTLE OF THE NILE.—For a season the war was discontinued on the continent, and Napoleon Bonaparte, who had risen from a comparatively humble position to the command of the French army, transferred the seat of hostilities to Egypt, then a dependency of Turkey, a power at peace with France. Hither he was followed by Nelson, who, though too late to intercept the expedition, attacked and utterly destroyed the French fleet in Aboukir Bay. By land the French troops were everywhere successful until they were repulsed from the walls of Acre, principally by Sir Sidney Smith at the head of a few seamen and marines. Bonaparte soon after returned to France, where he became *First Consul*; but his army remained in Egypt until 1801, in which year, after suffering a defeat near Alexandria from the British under General Abercromby, who fell in the battle, it surrendered to his successor, General Hutchinson.

THE UNION.—In 1798, the French Republic, in order to create a powerful diversion against England, and to strike at the very vitals of her power, despatched a body of troops to Ireland, where it was expected that the sympathies of the people would be more with the invaders than with the British government. But the vessels employed to bring over the force were met and defeated by Admiral Warren off the coast of Ulster. The danger thus providentially averted, and the necessity of strict concord between the governments of the two islands, led to the formation of a union similar to that by which Scotland had been joined to England in the beginning of the preceding century. The three countries were formed into one kingdom, styled “The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland,” the latter country being represented in the imperial parliament by four spiritual peers sitting in rotation, by twenty-eight temporal peers elected for life, and by one hundred commoners. The Union dates from the 1st of January 1801.

The success of the French arms under Moreau and Napoleon

having compelled Austria to sign the treaty of Luneville, the Czar Paul also made peace with France, and seized all the British vessels in his harbours. Exerting his influence over Sweden and Denmark, he succeeded in persuading them to combine with him in reviving the "armed neutrality," to break up which confederacy, Sir Hyde Parker and Nelson were sent into the Baltic, when the latter, after a severe engagement before Copenhagen, compelled the Danes to withdraw from the Russian alliance (1801).

All nations were now wearied with the long continuance of hostilities, and in order to facilitate an arrangement Mr Pitt retired from the ministry, and was succeeded by Mr Addington, afterwards Viscount Sidmouth, by whom the definitive treaty of Amiens was signed on the 25th of March 1802.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the consequences of the French government's aiding the Americans? What nations were concerned in the war which immediately followed? What was the result of the siege of Gibraltar? Describe the events which occurred on the passing of the act for the relief of Roman-catholics.

2. What was the nature of the new ministry? What famous measure did Mr Fox bring in? What was the result of his attempt to carry the India bills? Who was put at the head of the new ministry? Describe the events which occurred in Ireland from 1783 to 1785.

3. Who was chosen governor-general of India in 1773? What proceedings were begun against Warren Hastings? What were the principal charges against him? How long did the proceedings last? What was the result of them? What rendered a regency necessary? What was the state of the country at the king's recovery? Describe the Nootka Sound quarrel.

4. State the great events in France which tended to disturb the tranquillity of Europe. What was the conduct of the Emperor of Austria? What was the effect of the beginning of the French Revolution on this country? Mention an instance of the unpopularity of the sympathizers with the revolutionists of France. What events immediately caused the war? What was the result of the Duke of York's expedition to the Netherlands? By what victory was it counterbalanced?

5. What prosecutions were carried on in England? What was generally their result? How did they end in Scotland? What naval victories were gained by Britain? What important event occurred as to the Bank of England? Describe the mutinies of Spithead and the Nore. Mention the principal events connected with the Irish rebellion.

6. How and by whom were hostilities transferred to Egypt? Who was chiefly instrumental in repelling the French from Acre? What general defeated the French near Alexandria? What was the result of an attempt to invade Ireland? What remarkable event occurred at the beginning of the century? What was the conduct of the Czar Paul? What is the date of the treaty of Amiens?

CHAPTER XXXV.

FROM THE TREATY OF AMIENS TO THE DEATH OF
GEORGE III., A. D. 1802—1820.

Renewal of the War—Victory of Trafalgar—Death of Pitt and Fox—Unsuccessful foreign Expeditions—Bombardment of Copenhagen—Peninsular War—Convention of Cintra—Battle of Corunna—Walcheren Expedition—Sir Francis Burdett—The Regency—Liverpool Ministry—Orders in Council—War with the United States—Waterloo—Bombardment of Algiers—Popular Disturbances.

1. TRAFALGAR.—The peace was not of long duration: disputes soon arose as to various articles of the treaty, and Bonaparte's demands were so unreasonable, that the British ambassador, Lord Whitworth, was recalled from Paris, and the war renewed in May 1803. In the following year, Mr Pitt returned to office, and succeeded in organizing another coalition, consisting of Russia, Sweden, Austria, and Naples, against the ambition of the French emperor, for such was the title assumed by Bonaparte in 1804. The latter, having at his absolute disposal all the resources of Holland, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, endeavoured to become as supreme on the ocean as he was already on land, and the combined fleets of France and Spain were prepared for sea. These Nelson encountered off Cape Trafalgar, and in a glorious victory, dearly purchased
 21st Oct. } by the hero's death, the navies of the allied powers
 1805. } were almost annihilated.

Mr Pitt died on the 23d of January 1806, and Mr Fox, his great antagonist and successor in office, followed him to the grave on the 13th September of the same year.

Several foreign expeditions, planned by the whig ministry, were attended with the most unfortunate results. A fleet was sent out to Constantinople to compel the sultan to relinquish his suspicious state of neutrality. It forced the passage of the Dardanelles, but found the approaches to the capital so strongly fortified as to be obliged to retire not without loss. General Whitelocke was sent to Buenos Ayres, and after taking possession of the town, was forced to capitulate. On his return home he was tried for misconduct, and dismissed the service. A third expedition was sent against Egypt, and

although Alexandria was taken, the troops were compelled to retreat before superior forces. These failures, combined with other causes, led to the retirement of the whigs, who were replaced by a tory administration, at the head of which was Mr Percival, and among whose colleagues were Lords Castlereagh and Hawkesbury, and Mr Canning.

One of the first measures of the new ministry was an expedition to Copenhagen, to demand the surrender of the Danish fleet into safe keeping during the war, that it might not fall into the hands of Bonaparte. It was not until their capital had suffered all the horrors of a bombardment both by land and sea, that the Danes yielded, and their fleet was brought to England. This affair has been severely criticised both at home and abroad; but it has generally been viewed as an act of self-defence, and as such, justifiable by the example of individuals as well as nations (1807).

2. PENINSULAR WAR.—During the year 1808, Napoleon reached the height of his prosperity, and commenced that line of conduct which led to his downfall. After inveigling the King of Spain and his son into France, he made them prisoners, and placed his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne. The flames of insurrection immediately burst forth throughout the whole kingdom, and deputies were sent to England praying for assistance. This was readily granted, and an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley was despatched to Portugal, then in the hands of the French. The British landed in Mondego Bay, and defeated the invaders at Roliça and Vimiero. But the fruits of victory were lost through a change of generals, and the French soldiery were allowed by the inglorious convention of Cintra to retire to France, instead of being compelled to surrender as prisoners of war. In the following November, Sir John Moore arrived with another army; but, after penetrating into the heart of Spain, he was compelled to retreat toward the sea. In front of Corunna (January 7, 1809), he made a noble stand, and the French, whom their pursuit had highly elated, were defeated by the enfeebled and dispirited British army. Moore fell during the battle, and his remains were interred on the ramparts of Corunna.

WALCHEREN EXPEDITION.—In 1809, an ill planned and worse conducted expedition of 100,000 men was despatched to Holland under the command of the Earl of Chatham, Pitt's elder brother. Before anything could be done toward the object of the campaign the unhealthy season came on, and that

army, which if sent to Spain would have curtailed Napoleon's career, and spared torrents of blood and millions of money, was wasted away by fever in the marshes of Walcheren. During the inquiries into this expedition, strangers were excluded from the House of Commons; and this was made the subject of discussion by a debating club, for which breach of privilege the president was committed to Newgate. Sir Francis Burdett, the member for Westminster, wrote some severe remarks on this imprisonment in a letter to his constituents; and among other things denied the right of the Commons to imprison without trial. This was voted a libel on the house, and the Speaker's warrant was issued for his arrest. Burdett resisted its execution, and immense crowds of people collected round his house to protect him; but after holding out for two days, he was taken by an armed force and carried to the Tower. The metropolis was disturbed for several days, and during the tumults a number of lives were lost.

Hitherto our intervention in Spain had from various causes been fruitless; but in 1809 Sir Arthur Wellesley again landed in Portugal with reinforcements. His first great exploit was to drive the French from Oporto, which he did by skilfully crossing the river Douro, when Soult fled in disorder before the British general, whose caution he had affected to sneer at. Thence General Wellesley marched into Spain, where he was attacked by Marshal Victor at Talavera. The battle lasted two days (July 27 and 28), during which the French lost 1000 men, about 6000 wounded, and 17 guns. But the Spanish allies were so untrustworthy, and the English army was so small, that Sir Arthur, unable to profit by his great success, had to retire into Portugal. For this striking victory, which was, however, much depreciated by certain politicians at home, the general was raised to the peerage by the title of Viscount Wellington. Upwards of twelve months elapsed before he resumed the offensive; but finding that his soldiers grew dispirited from their forced inactivity,—a necessity of his position with a small army between three larger ones in front and flanks,—he determined to meet the French once more in the field. At Busaco he offered battle, and was immediately attacked by Massena, who was repulsed with severe loss (1810).

According to a plan arranged long before, the English army now began to retire towards Lisbon, in front of which were the strongly fortified lines of Torres Vedras. Against

these impregnable works Massena could do nothing, and while his soldiers were almost starving, the British received their supplies regularly by sea, as they did in the Crimean war while entrenched on the heights of Sebastopol. At last the French were compelled to retreat, Wellington following them closely. On the 2d May 1811, Massena turned and attacked the English at Fuentes de Onoro. But the result was adverse; and a few days later (May 16) Soult experienced a terrible repulse from Beresford on the ridge of Albuera. "Then," says Colonel Napier, "was seen with what a strength and majesty the British soldier fights. In vain did Soult with voice and gesture animate his Frenchmen; in vain did the hardiest veterans break from the crowded columns, and sacrifice their lives to gain time for the mass to open out on such a fair field; in vain did the mass itself bear up, and fiercely striving, fire indiscriminately upon friends and foes, while the horsemen, hovering on the flank, threatened to charge the advancing line. Nothing could stop that astonishing infantry. No sudden burst of undisciplined valour, no nervous enthusiasm, weakened the stability of their order; their flashing eyes were bent on the dark columns in their front; their measured tread shook the ground; their dreadful volleys swept away the head of every formation; their deafening shouts overpowered the dissonant cries that broke from all parts of the tumultuous crowd, as slowly, and with a horrid carnage, it was pushed by the incessant vigour of the attack to the farthest edge of the hill. In vain did the French reserves mix with the struggling multitude to sustain the fight; their efforts only increased the irremediable confusion, and the mighty mass, breaking off like a loosened cliff, went headlong down the steep. The rain flowed after in streams discoloured with blood, and 1800 unwounded men, the remnant of 6000 unconquerable British soldiers, stood triumphant on the fatal hill."

Again Wellington withdrew his army into Portugal behind the old line of the Coa. In January 1812, the fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo was captured, for which success he was made an earl. In April, Badajos was taken, at a dreadful cost of human life, after one of the most daring sieges on record. The way into Spain was now open. On the 22d July, he encountered Marmont and Clausel at Salamanca, and defeated them with signal loss. The British army soon

after entered Madrid, and Wellington was made a marquis. Failing in his attack on Burgos, he once more retired into Portugal, which he finally quitted in May 1813. By a series of skilful manœuvres, Wellington marched through a country hitherto deemed impassable for an army, and without risking a battle compelled the French to retreat. A stand was made at Vittoria by King Joseph in person, but his army suffered a more complete defeat than any they had experienced before in Spain. They lost everything, and for this crowning exploit Wellington was made a field-marshal.

Soult was now placed at the head of the French army; but even his indomitable energy proved unavailing. In a series of combats, known as the battles of the Pyrenees, Wellington was always conqueror, and on the 7th October that army which he had led from the banks of the Tagus entered the French territory. Here nearly every foot of ground was fiercely contested. At Orthez, Soult was again worsted in a pitched battle, and at Toulouse was driven in confusion from his entrenchments. This was a useless fight, for it took place after Napoleon's abdication and the signing of preliminaries of peace between the belligerents in the north of France. For this last victory in the peninsular war, a dukedom, the highest rank in the peerage, was conferred on the successful general.

3 THE REGENCY.—During these successes and reverses, events were transpiring in England that must not be overlooked. In 1810, the king was afflicted by a return of that fatal disease which accompanied him to the grave. His mind is said to have given way under the shock caused by the death of his favourite daughter the Princess Amelia. The charge of the king's person was intrusted to his amiable and affectionate queen, while the Prince of Wales was appointed regent with almost regal power. The following year was one of serious distress and suffering; and one individual, named Bellingham, who had not escaped the universal depression, fancied that by killing the prime minister all would be well. For this purpose he lay in wait for his victim in the lobby of the House of Commons, and Mr Percival fell by a pistol shot as he was entering the house.

THE ORDERS IN COUNCIL.—The task of the new ministry, of which Lord Liverpool was premier, was one of no slight difficulty. The lower classes were discontented, and loudly

called for a reform in parliament, while the number of our enemies was likely to be increased by the addition of America. After the prostration of Prussia by the battles of Jena and Auerstadt, Napoleon issued the famous "Berlin decree," declaring Great Britain in a state of blockade, and shutting all the harbours of Europe against her merchandise. The king's ministers retaliated by the equally notorious "orders in council," to the effect that no merchant vessel belonging to a neutral power should enter the port of any country at war with England without first landing its freight and paying duty on it in Britain. The result of these measures, if they could have been fully carried out, would have been to stop the trade of the world, to deprive mankind of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures, and to reduce them nearly to the primitive barbarism of fighting savages. But commerce is a practice so natural to the human race, that when it has once got into a channel, no despotism is sufficiently strong absolutely to stop it. It so happened, that just at this time we were making the chief improvements in the cotton spinning and other manufactures, and our fabrics were produced so cheap, that in spite of decrees and armies, they found their way to every market in Europe. It has been said with some truth, that it was our spinning-jennies rather than our troops that beat Napoleon. By these measures, however, the commerce of the United States was greatly embarrassed, and a bad feeling excited against us among their inhabitants. This was exasperated by the right assumed by our ships of war to search for English seamen on board of the American vessels. After much angry negotiation, the president declared war against Great Britain in June 1812; and although the obnoxious orders had been revoked before the proclamation reached England, the States were too much excited to recall their declaration. On land the Americans were unsuccessful in their invasion of Canada, and the several English expeditions along the sea-coast were of a mixed character. At sea the Americans were victors in several encounters, until the meeting of the Shannon and the Chesapeake, the result of which showed that the parent country was more than a match for her vigorous and youthful descendants. The war terminated in 1814, leaving unsettled the principles in defence of which it had been commenced.

4. The disasters of the Russian campaign in 1812, and the reverses experienced in Northern Germany in the following

year, drove the French within their own frontiers. All Europe was now once again allied in arms against the ambition of France and of her ruler: the "sacred territory" was invaded, Paris surrendered to the victors, and Napoleon, A. D. } descending from his imperial throne, exchanged it for
1814. } the petty sovereignty of Elba. In the beginning of the next year, Bonaparte suddenly appeared again in France, and resumed the government. One hundred days only elapsed before his power was finally destroyed by the army of the allies under the command of the Duke of Wellington. The several forces assembled together in the Netherlands towards the middle of June, while Napoleon was on his march from Paris. About nine miles from Brussels, the Duke had marked a wide and gentle declivity between two rising grounds, on the top of one of which was the small village of Waterloo, and it appeared to him that here the capital of Belgium might be best defended against an army approaching from Paris. The high road to the French frontier passed through it, and on the side of Brussels there was a great forest which would have secured a retreat had that been the fate of the army. He was not, however, permitted immediately to occupy this position. Napoleon's movements were as usual rapid and secret, for no general of the age could equal him in the skill with which he marched his troops over a great space of ground in a short time and in regular quiet order. He intended to follow up the system which had so often led him to victory—to come by surprise on the two armies of the allies one after the other—to beat Blucher, and then beat Wellington. On the 15th of June 1815, the French troops crossed the border of France and entered Flanders in three divisions. The Duke of Wellington was stationed at Brussels. News of the crossing of the frontier reached him about six o'clock on the same afternoon, but merely as a rumour which might put him on his guard, while it was not sufficient authority for moving his troops. He therefore did not let it prevent himself and his principal officers from attending a ball given by an English lady of rank that night in Brussels. At eleven o'clock he received more distinct intelligence, and without bustle or alarm a great movement towards the enemy began, and continued during the forenoon of the sixteenth.

About sixteen miles from Brussels there was a spot called Quatre Bras or the Four Arms, because two important roads there crossed each other. The possession of this central point

was important to the French, as it would enable them to intercept all communication between the British and Prussian armies, and to fall with a superior force on either at pleasure. While the Prussians, fighting hard at Ligny, sustained a defeat, the British and other troops under Wellington held their ground at Quatre Bras, during a conflict in which there was great slaughter on both sides. This, however, was merely a preparation for the decisive battle. It was necessary to retire from Quatre Bras, made untenable by the retreat of Blucher, and take up the position which the Duke of Wellington had marked out near the village of Waterloo, on which the Prussian forces were slowly concentrating.

5. BATTLE OF WATERLOO.—This great battle took place on the 18th of June. There are confused accounts of the numbers on both sides, but the best reports seem to show that Wellington had under his command 80,000 men, of whom 30,000 were British, and that the force under Napoleon was somewhat larger. Of such a contest as this it is quite impossible to give a distinct account in small space, since the mere enumeration of all the movements and chief incidents would fill a large volume. This battle has of late years been more spoken of than any other, and perhaps there is many a great conflict to which it might be as fair to apply what the officers who were present at Waterloo generally say, that they had too much to do in attending to their own particular business to be able to give any account of the general progress of the battle. It is even understood that the great hero of the day has professed himself unable to remember how the various movements followed each other. The general character of the battle was, that the French repeatedly charged, both with cavalry and infantry, and that the British stood their ground, husbanding their strength until the enemy, thinned by the discharges of artillery and musketry, became too much exhausted to stand a charge. General Picton, who had been wounded so severely at Quatre Bras that he was not likely to survive, was killed by a ball passing through his head, while repelling the most formidable of the French attacks. Sir William Ponsonby opportunely led forward a strong force of cavalry under his command, which beat back the charging masses of the French, and, in its turn, carried on by that excitement which it is so difficult for high-spirited soldiers to resist, pressed too far into the French lines, and suffered many losses, including that of their gallant commander.

In Napoleon's army there was a fine body of horsemen, with cuirasses or breastplates; armed more like ancient knights than modern dragoons. They made one attack, and did considerable execution on some of the allied troops, especially those who supported the little garrison stationed in a farm house called La Haye Sainte, but they were driven back by the life guards. After these events the main bodies of the two armies stood towards each other nearly as they did before, with the exception of terrible losses, chiefly on the French side. The hollow between the armies, which had so often been filled by the French attacking masses, was for a time clear. All around, however, the battle was still raging in detail. There was a ceaseless discharge of cannon balls and shells. Besides La Haye Sainte, there was another large farm building of more importance, called Hougomont, the garden walls and outhouses of which made a sort of fortification. In the middle of a great battle it was of as much consequence to have the advantage of this citadel as on other occasions of a strong fortress. It remained in the hands of the allies, but only by being obstinately defended against many furious attacks.

About three o'clock in the afternoon, a general motion appeared along the French ranks, and again the hollow was filled by the advancing masses of their cavalry, headed by the mail-clad cuirassiers. The British were immediately formed in squares. By this arrangement, one line of men may be presenting their bayonets while another fires over their heads. Whenever cavalry advance on infantry, they are met in this manner: the square bristles with a front on every side, and when the men are steady, these compact bodies have been able to defy the most formidable charges of horse. The cannon of the allies ploughed through the enemy, but they still advanced, and as the gunners could not defend themselves, they were instructed to retreat within the squares. On these the whole force and fierce ardour of the cavalry could produce no impression, and as they retired, the gunners returned to their cannon and fired on the retreating masses.

Again the front was clear, and the mere miscellaneous war went on as before; but evening was approaching, and with it a new ally was expected in Blücher, who was toiling through almost impassable roads to join the British. The distant boom of his advancing cannon was at last heard through the

near roar of battle, and if Napoleon wished to succeed in his favourite project of beating first the one army and then the other, there was no time to be lost. About seven o'clock another movement was observed along the French line. This time the old guard—the pride of France—who had not yet been engaged, were to join in the general charge on which the fate of the empire and the peace of Europe rested. It was now resolved that the policy of the British army should no longer be that of passive enduring resistance. As the vast mass came onwards the French could see but little of their formidable foe, for the infantry had been ordered to lie down, so as to keep the ridge of the hill between them and the cannon and musketry of their assailants. It was just as the advancing host were clearing this ridge that the Duke of Wellington is said to have issued his command in the laconic sentence, “Up guards and at them.” Then it was that a new army arose as it were from the earth before the astonished foe, on whom they swept forward in a general charge which was irresistible. All now on the French side was flight and ruin. The sun, newly broken through the clouds, showed near at hand the leading columns of Blucher’s advancing force. The charge became a pursuit, but it was not carried far by the exhausted British troops, who left the less heroic task of butchery and plunder to the Prussians, who had a long catalogue of wrongs to avenge.

6. Napoleon, often as he had rallied his troops after heavy losses, was totally unable to make head with the scattered remnant left by the bloody victory of Waterloo, and after witnessing his capital once more in the possession of the allies, he was banished to St Helena, an island in the Atlantic, where he died in 1821. The affairs of Europe were definitively settled by the Congress of Vienna, and three of the powers (Russia, Prussia, and Austria) afterwards formed what is popularly known as the Holy Alliance.

Thus terminated the longest and fiercest war recorded in history. Except in extending her colonial possessions, England gained little besides an honourable name in Europe, and the glory of being the protector of the weak against the strong, of the oppressed against the tyrant, of right and order against violence and injustice. Since the declaration of hostilities in 1793, her national debt had increased from £260,000,000 to £885,000,000. In the last year of the war her military expenses exceeded seventy millions: the supplies

for the navy amounted to twenty-two millions, and for the army and ordnance to nearly fifty millions. With these sums 207,000 regular soldiers were maintained, with 80,000 militia and 340,000 local militia, in all nearly 630,000 men under arms, besides fifty-eight ships of the line in commission. The whole expenditure of the year, including subsidies to foreign powers, reached the unparalleled sum of £107,000,000.

ALGIERS BOMBARDED.—The Mediterranean Sea had for ages been infested by pirates from the ports of the Barbary States, and particularly from Algiers, who did not confine themselves to plundering the merchant vessels, but carried their passengers and crews into slavery. England at length determined to put an end to this practice, and a strong squadron under Lord Exmouth was sent to Algiers to negotiate for the surrender of all Christian slaves, and failing that, to enforce his claims by the thunder of British cannon. The dey rejected every proposal of accommodation, and the city was attacked on the 27th August 1816. After a tremendous cannonade, which continued six hours, the enemy's batteries were destroyed, his navy and arsenal burnt, and 7000 killed and wounded. The result of the contest was favourable to humanity: a great number of captives were liberated, and christian slavery was abolished. In 1824, England was forced to interfere again to obtain reparation for an insult offered to her consul, which was not granted until Sir H. Neale threatened to bombard the city.

7. The reaction from a state of war to peace brought with it a depression in the political body, similar to that which follows any extraordinary excitement in the human frame. A period of almost unexampled distress, increased by the failure of the wheat crop in 1816, followed close upon the cessation of hostilities. The suffering people readily listened to those who loudly proclaimed that the corrupt state of the representation was the root of every social and political evil, and that reform in parliament would alone regenerate society. Tumultuous meetings took place in several parts of the country, which the government put down with a high hand. The act of *habeas corpus* was suspended in 1817, and numerous individuals were detained in prison on the mere warrant of the ministers. The prosperity of the country rallied a little in 1818, but again in 1819 meetings of a formidable nature were held in the northern counties of England. One

of these, which took place at Manchester on the 16th of August, with the professed object of petitioning the regent "for a radical reform in parliament," was not dispersed without bloodshed. The government maintained that all these meetings were of a seditious and dangerous tendency; and when parliament met at the close of the year, it sanctioned various acts of a nature to strengthen the hands of ministers, and enable them to suppress all public assemblies not called by the authority of the magistrates.

On the 29th of January 1820, George III. closed his earthly career, his fourth son, the Duke of Kent, having died only one week before him. He was bereft of his consort, Queen Charlotte, in November 1818, and just twelve months before the queen's death, his granddaughter, the Princess Charlotte, "England's pride and hope," was hurried to a premature grave.

George III., though he cared neither for literature nor the arts, conferred many marks of his favour on distinguished men. He was fond of agriculture, and on this account he was sometimes called "Farmer George." Among the poets who added fresh and brighter laurels to the English wreath during his long reign, were Burns, Cowper, Beattie, Campbell, Scott, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Moore, Byron, and Southey; the chief prose writers were Johnson, Robertson, Hume, Gibbon, Goldsmith, Lowth, Warburton and Paley, Adam Smith, Hartley, Stewart and Reid. Sculpture and architecture were cultivated by Chambers, Adam, Soane, Rennie, Chantrey, Nollekens, and particularly by John Flaxman. The artists of the Flemish and Italian schools found rivals in Reynolds, Gainsborough, Lawrence, Romney, West, and Wilkie. Banks, Davy, Rumford, Cavendish, Pennant, Winslow, Cheselden, Pringle, Cullen, Priestley, the great circumnavigator Cook, and a host of others, by their useful and admirable labours, added to the increasing reputation of Great Britain, and concurred with the exploits of her soldiers and sailors to raise her influence and prosperity to the highest point.

EXERCISES.

1. What coalition did Mr Pitt organize? What nations were arrayed against it? What victory was gained by Nelson? Who succeeded Pitt? Mention the principal foreign expeditions which took place at this time. What minister replaced the whigs? What was the conduct of the new ministry to the Danes?

2. Describe Napoleon's conduct towards Spain. What operations did Britain undertake in Spain? What general was slain when victorious at

Corunna? What was the result of the Walcheren expedition? Describe the political excitement produced by the inquiry regarding it. Give an account of the Peninsular War.

3. What took place in regard to the king and his son in 1810? What were the circumstances of the assassination of Percival? Who succeeded him? What was the nature of the Berlin decree and of the orders in council? How were their deleterious effects on trade mainly obviated? What war did they produce?

4. What events brought about the retirement of Napoleon to Elba? What occasioned a renewal of the war? In what part of Europe was the new war carried on? Who was made commander of the allied forces? Where were the British troops when the news of the French crossing the frontier reached them? What was the result of the battle of Ligny? What was the result of the battle of Quatre Bras?

5. When was the battle of Waterloo fought? What are supposed to have been the numbers of the two armies? What was the general system pursued on the British side as compared with that of the French? What kind of troops were the cuirassiers? How did the squares of infantry act? Give a general account of the battle.

6. What was the result of the battle of Waterloo? What nations formed the Holy Alliance? What was the effect of the war on the resources of Great Britain? What did the cost of the last year of the war exceed? How much had the national debt increased since 1793?

7. What led to the bombardment of Algiers? What occasioned sufferings among the people? Describe the occurrences which were considered dangerous to the peace of the country. What course did the government pursue? When did George III. die? Mention the names of some eminent poets in his reign. Of some eminent prose writers. Of some eminent painters, sculptors, and architects. Of some other eminent men.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

GEORGE IV., A. D. 1820—1830.

The Cato Street Conspiracy—The Queen's Trial—King's Visit to Ireland, Hanover, and Scotland—Negro Insurrection in the West Indies—Tithe War in Ireland—Burmese and Ashantee Wars—Panic of 1825—Canning Ministry—Battle of Navarino—Repeal of the Test Act—Roman-catholic Relief Bill.

1. GEORGE IV., who now succeeded to his father's throne, had for the preceding ten years exercised nearly all the functions of royalty. Within a month of his accession, a most atrocious plot was discovered, by which a set of indigent men of the lowest rank had designed to assassinate the ministers at a cabinet dinner; and then, after opening the prisons and firing London in several places, so as to distract and divert public attention, they were to form themselves into a provisional government. On the very eve of their frantic under-

taking they were arrested after some resistance at their place of rendezvous in London, a stable in Cato Street, near the Edgeware Road. Thistlewood and four others suffered the penalty of their treason, and the less criminal were transported. About the same period an attempt was made in the west of Scotland to effect an alteration in the state, and two men paid the forfeit of their crimes.

When the new parliament met in April, the chancellor of the exchequer presented his budget, from which it was found that the expenses of the government amounted to fifty millions and a half; to meet which there would be required, in addition to the ordinary taxes, a loan of five millions, and an issue of exchequer bills to the amount of seven millions. Besides which it was proposed to take twelve millions from the sinking fund.

THE QUEEN'S TRIAL.—In 1795, George, prince of Wales, had married his cousin, the Princess Caroline of Brunswick, who soon after bore him an only child, the much lamented Princess Charlotte. The married pair did not live long together; and the princess eventually withdrew to the continent, where she resided many years. Her conduct abroad was not without reproach; and on her return from her voluntary exile, a "bill of pains and penalties" was brought into the House of Lords against her. It was generally felt that, even if the criminal charges alleged against her were true, the irregularities of her husband's life, and his indefensible behaviour towards her, had entirely debarred him from every right to question her conduct during her absence. The people feeling that she was "more sinned against than sinning," received the queen with the warmest expressions of sympathy; and in the Lords the majority in favour of the criminatory bill was so small, that, after a judicial investigation of forty-five days, the ministers resolved to proceed no further. In the A.D. } month of August in the following year, a severe illness,
1821. } exasperated if not caused by the trials she had undergone during the last twelve months, terminated her earthly career. At this time the king was in Ireland, and in the next month he went to Hanover. In the following year he visited Scotland, where he was welcomed with great enthusiasm. During his brief absence among his northern subjects, he received the melancholy news that the Marquis of Londonderry had committed suicide, in a fit of derangement caused by fatigue and excessive mental exertion. He was succeeded

in his office of foreign secretary by Mr Canning, Mr Robinson becoming chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr Huskisson president of the board of trade.

2. In 1823, the question of negro slavery was discussed in parliament, and its abolition proposed. The news of this debate produced very disastrous effects in the West Indies, where the negroes, inflamed, it was alleged, by seditious demagogues, who represented that parliament had granted them freedom which their masters unjustly withheld, rose in insurrection. In Demerara the destruction of life and property was considerable: in the other colonies, strong measures were employed to prevent a similar outbreak. The parliament had passed several enactments for the purpose of improving the condition of the slaves, and a regular church establishment, with two bishops at its head, was formed in the West Indian colonies.

For some time Ireland, especially in the southern districts, had been in a very disturbed state: murder stalked unpunished through the country, and the peaceable inhabitants were so terror-stricken that they neglected the cultivation of the soil, by which thousands of the peasantry were reduced to a state of starvation. Great Britain generously interfered, and by large subscriptions enabled the poor to purchase food. In 1823, the disturbances assumed the shape of a war upon rents and tithes; and the discontent gradually increased, so that in 1828 the country seemed on the brink of a civil war. By the exertions of the catholic association, Mr O'Connell, though unqualified, was returned for the county of Clare, and to support him the peasantry assembled in large bodies in arms and with military organization. The law was set at defiance, riots accompanied with loss of life ensued, and the existence of the protestant establishment was menaced. This state of things led to the repeal of the restrictive laws, which will be noticed further on.

BURMESE WAR.—About this time hostilities broke out in the East Indies between the English and the Burmese, a warlike people beyond the Ganges. They had made frequent encroachments on the adjoining British settlements, when war was declared against them, and their territory invaded

April } by a small army under General Campbell. The strug-
1824. } gle was desperate and sanguinary, but it ended in the

Feb. 24, } total defeat of the Burmese; and the treaty of peace,
1826. } concluded when the British were within forty-five

miles of their capital, was most advantageous to Great Britain. During the same year our settlements on the western coast of Africa were threatened by the warlike Ashantees, who, to the number of 25,000 men, took the field in July. After a brief struggle they were routed with a loss of 5000 men.

The year 1825 was a period of great commercial difficulties. The measures of Canning and Huskisson had infused new vigour into the manufacturing and monied classes, and an extraordinary spirit of speculation arose. Joint-stock companies for the most absurd projects were established; and in one (that for working the gold and silver mines of America), shares that had been bought for £70, rose to the unprecedented value of £1300. The natural result followed; long established banks stopped payment, merchants became insolvent, and a general panic spread through the country, from the effects of which no class of the community was exempt. By degrees confidence was restored, and trade again revived.

In the early part of the year 1827, the Earl of Liverpool was seized with a fit of paralysis, and his place, as head of the administration, was taken by Mr Canning, who died in the following August, a victim to the cares of state and the desertion of political supporters. He was succeeded by Lord Goderich, who gave way to the Duke of Wellington in 1828.

3. During Mr Canning's brief administration, England united with France and Russia in an attempt to settle the differences between the Grand Seignior and the Greeks, whom he claimed as revolted subjects; and a combined fleet was sent into the Mediterranean to enforce compliance with the terms proposed by the three powers. The Turkish fleet which lay in the harbour of Navarino, having repeatedly in-
 Oct. 20, } fringed the armistice, was attacked and destroyed,
 1827. } after a desperate engagement, by the allied fleet under Codrington. Their immediate object was not gained, and some time elapsed before the Greeks became entirely independent.

EMANCIPATION BILL.—In the year 1828, a measure fraught with most important consequences was carried in parliament. By two acts passed in the reign of Charles II., known as the test and corporation acts, all dissenters from the doctrines of the establishment were required, upon their admission into any public office, to take the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England. These were now repealed; and this step

was followed in the ensuing year by the catholic emancipation act, by which individuals professing the Romish faith were admitted to the enjoyment of nearly the same political rights as protestants. After the Revolution, the catholics of Ireland were subjected to a long series of persecutions, which sometimes resembled those inflicted on the presbyterians of Scotland under the reign of Charles II. Many of the more severe enactments against them had been gradually repealed, but they were still disqualified by certain oaths, which it was necessary to take, from sitting in parliament and filling certain offices. The passing of the emancipation act was in a great measure owing to the exertions of the celebrated Daniel O'Connell. The immediate consequences of these two acts, the one being a necessary sequel to the other, did not terminate here. The great tory party, that had for so long a period administered the government, was split into fragments; confidence in political leaders was shaken, for the emancipation bill was the act of the Duke of Wellington and Mr Peel, both of whom had, on all former occasions, strenuously opposed the slightest concessions,—and both together led the way to the whig government of 1830, the reform bill of 1832, and the subsequent measures of an advancing and more enlightened policy. The king did not live to see the result of these changes. He died at Windsor on the 26th of June 1830.

EXERCISES.

1. Describe the plot which was discovered soon after the accession of George IV. What were the expenses of the government found to amount to? What was the history of the king and his wife? Who succeeded the Marquis of Londonderry? What countries did the king visit?

2. What occurred as to negro slavery and the West Indies in 1823? Describe the state of Ireland. What war broke out in the East? What was its result? What took place in Western Africa? What were the effects of the great commercial speculations of 1825? What ministerial changes occurred in 1827 and 1828?

3. What was the occasion of the battle of Navarino? What act tending towards religious toleration was passed in 1828? What grievances was the catholic emancipation act intended to remove? What was the effect of these acts on political parties?

CHAPTER XXXVII.

WILLIAM IV., A. D. 1830—1837.

The Reform Bill—Parliamentary Struggle—Political Unions—Disturbances in the Country—Abolition of Slavery—New Poor Law—State of Ireland—Coercion Bills—Municipal Reform Bill—Dissolution of the Orange Lodges.

1. GEORGE IV. was succeeded by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, under the title of William the Fourth, soon after whose accession, the elder line of the Bourbon dynasty was expelled from France by the revolution of July, and the crown conferred on Louis Philippe, duke of Orleans, the head of the younger branch, with the title not of "King of France," but "King of the French." This change gave fresh vigour to the agitation for a reform of the representation in Britain: and the feeling throughout the country became so strong, that the Wellington ministry retired, and a whig administration was formed with Earl Grey at its head. The unsettled state of the country, the distress of many of the manufacturing and labouring classes, and the frequent incendiary fires, imperatively called for some social or political remedy.

THE REFORM BILL.—The first great object of the new ministry was to carry a reform of the House of Commons. Efforts had been made many years earlier to alter the constitution of that House, but without success. The reasons for such a measure were principally these, that the country had changed greatly even within the last fifty years, while no corresponding alteration in the constituency had been made for centuries, so as to make a fair representation in parliament according to the principles of our ancestors. Thus large towns had risen up, some of them with upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants, but as they were not ancient boroughs they had no representatives. In other instances, boroughs which were formerly places of importance still retained their two members, though they were reduced to a few houses or to none. In the borough of Old Sarum, for example, which had been a Roman town and afterwards a cathedral city, there was not a single habitation. It was not to be expected that even where there were a few inhabitants they would give indepen-

dent votes. These places were called pocket boroughs, and the seat in parliament was considered the property of the owner of the estate. Besides the transference of the representation from these small places to large towns, it was considered proper that the franchise should be widened so as to embrace the middle classes generally, down to those who enjoy a decent and limited income. To accomplish this it was necessary that the voters in counties should be extended beyond the class of freeholders, to embrace the agricultural tenantry and other persons in a similar position. In towns the voting had often been in the hands of the members of the corporations or some particular privileged bodies, and it was intended to extend it generally to the substantial citizens. To accomplish these views, people enjoying landed property worth to them a clear annual income of £10 a-year, and the tenants of lands paying as much as £50 a-year in rent, were to be admitted as voters in counties, while in towns the franchise was to include proprietors or the tenants of houses worth £10 a-year. The reforms for Scotland and Ireland were generally of the same character. In Scotland the number of city representatives was raised from fifteen to twenty-three, and the change generally was greater, as the old franchise was still more narrow than it had been in England, the representatives of towns having been chosen by the town councils, who were self-elected, that is, went on choosing their successors in office when they retired.

2. Such was the bold measure announced by Lord John Russell on the 1st March 1831. That it should meet with great opposition was not to be wondered at. Many people sincerely believed that it would endanger the constitution, but, what was more formidable, a large number of the members of both houses who were called on to consent to the measure would lose the power they possessed under the old system of appointing themselves or their friends members of the House of Commons,—a power which they were often able to use much to their own profit. No conflict was ever witnessed with more intense interest than that which was now going on in parliament. On the second reading of the English bill on 22d March, there were 302 members in favour of and 301 against the measure, so that it passed this stage by a majority of only one. On the 19th of April there was a majority of eight against it on one of the clauses, and on the 23d the parliament was dissolved, and a new House of Com-

mons elected under great excitement. It was on the morning of the 22d September 1831, at the end of a debate begun the day before, that the measure was carried in the Commons by 347 to 238. Its chief difficulties, however, were to be encountered in the House of Lords. A division took place there on the second reading, and the bill was lost, 158 voting for it and 199 against it.

Parliament was prorogued to admit of the measure being brought in again. The popular support it had received had hitherto been peaceful and constitutional, but acts of violence now began. The Duke of Wellington, the most popular man in the kingdom at other times, and deservedly respected for his great services, fortified his house in London to stand a siege by the mob. The town houses of some other peers were riotously attacked. Formidable meetings were held in all populous places throughout the empire. The mob was master for three days of the town of Derby, but to the honour of the country, in circumstances which in most other nations would have produced a general war and many massacres, it was in the city of Bristol only that there was any considerable sacrifice of life and property. The bill slightly altered passed through the Commons with rather larger majorities than before. The second reading was carried in the Lords by a majority of nine on the 13th April 1832. Proceedings were now commenced, however, which showed that the bill would be so altered in its details as to become a different measure, and at a critical point in these alterations the ministry resigned. The king sent for the Duke of Wellington, who was considered as in power for about three days. This was the crisis of the change, and there are few who remember those days who are not thankful that they passed over without a bloody revolution. Numerous public meetings were held all over the country, and the most violent threats were uttered by the principal speakers. At Birmingham placards were posted up bearing these significant words: "No taxes paid here until the Reform Bill is passed;" and a petition from the inhabitants of that large town, calling upon the House of Commons to stop the supplies, contained this ominous passage: "Your petitioners find it declared in the Bill of Rights that the people of England may have arms for their defence; and they apprehend that this great right will be enforced generally, in order that the people may be prepared for any circumstances that may arise." In the face of so resolute an opposition the new

ministry found that it could not stand, and Lord Grey was recalled to power, with authority to use the royal prerogative for the creation of new peers if the House of Lords again rejected the measure. The English bill passed, and received the royal assent on the 7th June. The measures for Scotland and Ireland were passed on 17th July and 7th August.

3. **ABOLITION OF SLAVERY.**—Ever since the beginning of the century, the abolition of slavery had been the object of philanthropists. The trade in slaves had long ceased, and many salutary measures had been enacted to improve the condition of the negroes in our colonies. In 1833, Wilberforce and Clarkson saw the glorious consummation of many years' labour. Slavery was abolished, and about 800,000 slaves were emancipated, subject only to an apprenticeship to their former masters for a limited number of years, while all children under the age of six years were declared free. By a subsequent law, imperatively called for by the ill effects of the apprenticeship system, the West Indian negroes were entirely freed from servitude. The sum of twenty millions was paid as a compensation to the owners, or in other words, with that money government purchased all the slaves, and then restored them to liberty.

A.D. } **NEW POOR LAW.**—In the next year a thorough change
1834. } was effected in the poor laws. The old regulations, based on an act passed in the reign of Elizabeth, had been grossly abused. The poor rates, which had been known in some years to amount to seven and eight millions sterling, found their way into the possession of the profligate and idle, and were a bounty on indolence instead of an encouragement to honest industry. The object of the amendment act was to apply the labour test—that is, when people able to work applied for relief, to give it only in the shape of labour, so that it might hold out no temptation to those who were not truly destitute. The new system was very fiercely attacked when it passed, but it has outlived nearly all its enemies. Before this new bill became a law, Earl Grey was compelled by a difference in the cabinet on an Irish coercion bill to retire into private life, having witnessed the success of most of those liberal measures which he had proposed in his younger days. Lord Melbourne was his successor, and continued in office until September 1841, with a brief interruption of four months, during which Sir Robert Peel was prime minister.

The great business of the parliamentary session of 1835 was the passing of the Municipal Act for the better government of all corporate towns in England and Wales. This year was further memorable in the history of the Scottish church by the circumstances attending an application to government for the grant of an annual sum to enable the General Assembly to prosecute their plan for increasing their places of worship throughout the country.

In 1836, several measures of great social importance received the sanction of both houses of parliament: the principal of these were an act for the commutation of tithes in England, the tithes becoming henceforward a rent-charge calculated on the average price of corn; another for the registration of births, deaths, and marriages in England; and a third act legalizing marriages not solemnized by the Anglican clergy.

During the reign of William IV. the country, although ostensibly at peace, several times assumed a warlike attitude. In 1832, England blockaded the ports of Holland to compel the Dutch to acknowledge the independence of Belgium. It
 A.D. } also sympathized with the Constitutionalists in Portu-
 1835. } gal, and permitted the Spanish government to enlist men to serve in the civil war against the Carlists. In 1837, by the aid of a small British force, the siege of Bilbao was raised, when the garrison was reduced almost to the last extremity.

In the year 1831 a new and terrible pestilence appeared in England. The existence of the *cholera* was first noticed in India in 1817; after crossing Asia and Europe, it suddenly broke out at Sunderland, whence it spread over the whole empire, sweeping away no less than 52,547 victims in the three kingdoms in the space of about sixteen months.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded George IV.? What occurred in France at this time? What influence had the event on British politics? What were the defects for which the Reform Bill was intended as a remedy? To what classes was it the object of the measure to extend the franchise? Describe the principal provisions of the measure.

2. What were the different causes of opposition to the Reform Bill? What was the majority on the first reading? Describe the further proceedings until it reached the House of Lords. How was it treated there? What were the proceedings taken for bringing it before the Lords again? How did they proceed towards it the second time? What symptoms were there of danger to the peace of the country? Under whom was a ministry attempted to be formed? How was the measure carried?

3. Who were the great advocates of the abolition of slavery? What was the nature of the law which they lived to see enacted? How were the

slave-owners compensated? How had the poor law been subject to abuses? What was the nature of the poor law amendment act? Who succeeded Lord Grey as prime minister? What miscellaneous measures were passed by Lord Grey's ministry? Describe the principal foreign transactions of this reign? What new pestilence appeared in England?

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

VICTORIA TO THE END OF THE RUSSIAN WAR, A. D. 1837—1856.

Rebellion in Canada—The Chartists—Riots in Wales and Kent—Chinese War—Peel Ministry—Anti Corn Law League—Repeal Movement in Ireland—The Scottish Disruption—Repeal of the Corn Laws—Improved Social Legislation—Railway Mania—The Irish Famine—The Electric Telegraph—French Revolution—Chartist Discontent—Irish Rebellion—Repeal of the Navigation Laws—The Cholera—Hungarian Refugees—Death of Sir Robert Peel—Popish Usurpation—Great Exhibition—Wreck of the Birkenhead—Burmese and Kaffir Wars—Russian War.

1. CANADIAN INSURRECTION.—WILLIAM IV. died on the 20th of June 1837, and was succeeded by his niece Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. On the 10th of February 1840, she married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. The first year of her reign was disturbed by a rebellion in Canada, which broke out in November, when the rivers were closed by ice, which prevented the arrival of troops from England. Although the insurgents were supported by strong bodies of sympathizers, and with munitions of war from the United States, the revolt was suppressed after a few sharp encounters. To prevent the recurrence of similar outbreaks, the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada were united into one, and the seat of government was 10th Feb. } transferred from Quebec to Montreal, and afterwards
1841. } to Ottawa. In the following year, the north-eastern boundary between Canada and the United States, which threatened at one time to cause serious differences, was defined and settled by treaty; while the Oregon boundary discussion was terminated by mutual concessions in 1845.

THE CHARTISTS.—The year 1839 was disturbed by the proceedings of the chartists, a political body deriving their name from the "charter" of liberties which they held to be essential to good government and the wellbeing of society. The discontent attained its crisis towards the close of the year, and

an extensive outbreak was organized, which fortunately was confined to South Wales, where the town of Newport became the object of an attack that was defeated by the energy and firmness of the mayor and a small body of soldiers stationed at one of the inns. The ringleaders, Frost, Williams, and Jones, were condemned to die, but their punishment was commuted to transportation for life. In 1840, a lunatic named Thoms, also known as Sir William Courtenay, misled a number of country people in Kent, and induced them to follow him. He shot a constable, who was about to arrest him for a breach of the peace; and the commander of a detachment of the 45th regiment, who had been sent in pursuit, met with the same fate. On the fall of their officer, the soldiers immediately fired upon Courtenay and his band, eleven of whom, together with their leader, were left dead on the spot.

2. CHINESE WAR.—For many years the East India Company, as well as private merchants, after the opening of the trade, had been carrying on a very lucrative commerce with China in opium, one of the staple productions of the Indian peninsula. The Chinese government, alarmed not less by the drainage of silver specie than by the frightful ravages caused by this poisonous drug among its subjects, had prohibited its importation, and forbidden its use in the empire under the severest penalties. As the people of China were still ready to purchase opium, the merchants gave but little heed to these orders, and a most extensive contraband trade was opened for the sale of the forbidden article. Some of the Chinese officials were not less ready to close their eyes against this infraction of the law than the merchants were to continue the interdicted commerce. At length several cargoes were seized by the Chinese authorities and destroyed, and British subjects, charged with attempts to contravene the regulations, were imprisoned. The commissioner, Captain Elliot, had also been deprived of his liberty. Such an insult could not be overlooked: satisfaction and reparation were demanded by the home government and refused, upon which, in April 1840, war was declared against China. Canton was immediately blockaded, and the city and island of Chusan occupied by an Anglo-Indian garrison. In the following year, Canton was attacked, and just as the besieging troops were marching to storm the walls, the city capitulated, and, on payment of a ransom of six millions of dollars, the British army was with-

drawn. Meantime the war was going on in the north ; Amoy was taken after a sharp struggle, and ere long Sir Henry Pottinger dictated the terms of peace under the walls of Nankin. China ceded to Great Britain the island of Hong Kong, consented to pay an indemnity of six millions of dollars in ten years, and renewed her commercial relations on a freer footing, four other ports besides Canton being opened to foreign traders.

3. SYRIAN WAR.—While the arms of England were thus triumphing on the eastern shores of Asia, its western coast also became the scene of hostilities which, although glorious to our flag, had nearly caused a European war. After Mahomet Ali, the pacha of Egypt, had massacred the turbulent Mamelukes, he directed his attention to Arabia, where the Wahabees were plundering the country, and stopping the annual pilgrimages to the holy cities of Mecca and Medina. These he soon reduced, and afterwards restored the Syrian provinces to order. He ruled its anarchical tribes with a rod of iron, but the country rapidly improved under his administration. It was no unusual thing for a Turkish pacha, when he had the power, to throw off his allegiance to the sultan, merely recognising a nominal authority by the payment of a small tribute. This was the course adopted by Mahomet Ali, but the sultan determined to lower the pride of his vassal, and declared war against him. The victory of Koniah, in Asia Minor, had some years previously opened the gates of Constantinople to Ibrahim, the pacha's warlike son. The Sultan Mahmoud then applied to Russia for help, which was freely granted ; but the Russian auxiliaries did not withdraw until, by the treaty of Hunkiar Skelessi, the keys of the Dardanelles were placed in their hands, to the exclusion of the other European nations. England, France, and Austria protested in vain against the prohibition until 1841, when by a special treaty the straits were again closed against all foreign war vessels. In the meantime, Ibrahim withdrew his troops, and the convention of Kutayah terminated the differences between the sultan and his powerful subject. These events took place in 1833. Hostilities recommenced six years later, when Ibrahim gained the battle of Nezib, on the Euphrates, over the Ottoman general, Hafiz Pacha, which was soon followed by the defection of the Capitan Pacha, who went over to Mahomet with all the Turkish fleet.

At this juncture the sultan died, and the five great European powers once more interfered in the quarrel. The jealousy and different views of the mediating powers, especially of France, soon put an end to unanimity of action; and accordingly, on the 15th of July 1840, the plenipotentiaries of the four other governments, in conjunction with the envoy of the Sublime Porte, signed the treaty of London, binding themselves to employ force, if necessary, to compel the pacha to accept their terms. The latter, relying upon the support of France, would listen to no arrangement, and an English fleet was sent into the Mediterranean to enforce the treaty. On the 19th of September, Commodore Napier, under the orders of Admiral Stopford, bombarded Beyrout. After allowing the governor time to surrender the place, the firing was renewed on the following morning, and the city reduced to ashes. The other harbours along the coast were also compelled to yield, and on the 3d of November the allied fleet appeared before Acre, which after a brief cannonade surrendered to a Turkish and Austrian garrison. Napier now hastened to Alexandria with a considerable force, and prepared for an immediate bombardment of the city; when the pacha, convinced of the hopelessness of continuing the unequal strife, consented to evacuate Syria and give up the Turkish fleet, the British commodore guaranteeing to him the possession of Egypt. After some delay, all differences were arranged, and Mahomet remained pacha of Egypt, which title was made hereditary in his family.

4. The Whigs, who had been upwards of ten years in power, with the interruption of a few months at the end of 1834 and the beginning of 1835, had for some time been struggling with a strong opposition in parliament, and receiving little support from the country at large. That their strength might be fairly tried, parliament was dissolved on 23d June 1841; but the elections proving unfavourable to the ministers, a new cabinet was formed with Sir Robert Peel at its head. Opinions in favour of free trade and the abolition of taxes on food had now made considerable progress, and they were partially adopted by the new ministry. On the 29th of April 1842, an act was passed for modifying the Corn Laws, which was followed by a measure for reducing many of the duties on imported goods. As the national income had been falling off, and was likely to be for some

time reduced rather than raised by the alterations just noticed, it was necessary to find some other means of revenue, and, accordingly, a tax was laid on property and income, applied to all persons having £150 a-year and upwards.

The almost unprecedented distress arising from a succession of deficient harvests caused the year 1842 to close amid general complaints; but trade revived, and the revenue increased in 1843. Great exertions were made by the Anti-Corn-Law League to spread their opinions and influence the public mind. This body sprang from the party which had for many years supported the principles of free trade. It had its origin in Lancashire, and Mr Cobden, a calico printer of Manchester, was its most conspicuous leader.

5. REPEAL MOVEMENT.—The same year witnessed the rise, progress, and decay of alarming political movements in Ireland. A numerous body of the people had never been reconciled to the Union, considering it to be destructive of their independence, and regarding the restoration of the national parliament as the only means of imparting prosperity and freedom to their country. The agitation for Repeal first became serious after the passing of the Roman-catholic Relief Bill in 1829; a parliament was promised in College Green in Dublin within three years; and an association was formed by which popular passions were awakened, and the whole country convulsed. With various alternations of fortune, the movement was kept alive, until Daniel O'Connell announced that 1843 was to be "the great repeal year." As soon as the machinery was put in motion, the agitation made rapid progress. A general contribution throughout the country, called the *rent*, which had averaged only £50 or £60 a-week, suddenly rose to £200 and £300, and the total of the year was £48,000. Monster meetings, attended by countless multitudes, were held in various parts of the country, and the agitators, growing bolder, appointed one to be held at Clontarf, near Dublin, on Sunday the 8th of October. This was prevented by government; and O'Connell with five of his colleagues was prosecuted. They were condemned to two years' imprisonment; but on appeal to the House of Lords the sentence was annulled upon a technical point. The agitation soon afterwards declined, so as to be nearly extinct, until it was revived in a new form in 1848.

6. THE FREE CHURCH.—The year 1843 will ever be

memorable in the religious history of Scotland. The original cause of the divisions in that portion of the empire was the act of 1712 restoring patronage, which has been mentioned in connexion with Queen Anne's reign. After a long dispute, the General Assembly in 1834 passed an act, which did not profess to abolish patronage, but prohibited the church courts from accepting the person who was presented, if a majority of the male heads of families among the parishioners objected to him. The enforcement of this *Veto Act*, as it was called, was resisted in the Court of Session, whose decision in favour of the patrons was confirmed on appeal to the House of Lords. The appellants then presented a *Claim of Rights* to the government, which being refused, they left the established church, and formed themselves into "The Free Church of Scotland." By much exertion they have succeeded in erecting numerous churches and schools, and the people provide by voluntary contribution for the support of nearly 900 ministers.

At the same time, great internal movements were taking place in the Church of England, though they were not manifested by any open rupture. A party, sometimes called Puseyites, after Dr Pusey, one of their leaders, and sometimes Anglo-catholics or Tractarians, thought that their church, in separating from Rome, had deviated too far from the presumed rule and practice of the primitive christian church. They have thus occupied themselves in restoring the ceremonials and other peculiarities which belonged, as they allege, to the catholic church before it was corrupted.

REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS.—Towards the end of the year 1845, it became evident that several members of the government, including Sir Robert Peel, were coming over to the principles of Free Trade, and were reconciling themselves to the removal of many restrictions and limitations which had been created under the notion that they were beneficial to the community. The opinion thus adopted by the prime minister and his colleagues was considered the more honourable to them, as it was evidently the result of conviction, and was opposed both to their pride of wisdom and their self-interest. In the session of 1846, the Corn Law Repeal Act was brought in, and passed against an opposition which almost reminded people of the days of the Reform Bill. It received the royal assent on the 26th

of June; and a few days after, Sir Robert Peel, who was accused of betraying his supporters, resigned his office. On the 4th of July, another ministry was formed, with Lord John Russell at its head.

7. During the ensuing year, the legislature was more than ever occupied with measures almost exclusively affecting the welfare of the middle and lower classes of society, their general tendency being the removal of restrictions on trade and manufactures. As a considerable amount of revenue was provided by the Income Tax, many of the indirect taxes were repealed, and the method of collecting others was simplified. By indirect taxes are understood those which, like the duty on tea and sugar, or the excise on liquors, are laid on particular commodities, so that no one can buy them without paying the tax, which becomes an addition to the price. They are thus more easily collected than direct taxes, but they are a greater interruption to trade. Some laws were passed, chiefly applicable to Scotland, for doing away with entails and rendering the commerce in land more simple. Many people were convinced that great good might be effected by the enactment of laws for the protection of the public health. It appeared that much of the disease and mortality with which the community was afflicted proceeded from accumulations of filth in cities, and other causes which were removable, and measures were prepared for the attainment of so desirable an object. The first bill brought in was applicable to England alone, and it did not pass till the year 1848. Two years later a great defect in this act was removed by a bill prohibiting intramural interments throughout the metropolitan district.

RAILWAY MANIA.—The year 1846 became conspicuous by a great amount of speculation in all kinds of projects in which money could be employed, but especially in railways. Not only did people who had money spend it in this manner, but many who had none borrowed for the purpose of speculation. The extent to which this system was carried may be imagined, when it is stated that if the railways for which acts of parliament were obtained in that year had been actually carried out, they would have cost upwards of a hundred and thirty-two millions of pounds. These were not only beyond what the country could make full use of

at the time, but beyond what the speculators could afford to pay for ; and thus many people ruined themselves to raise the money they had engaged to advance, while others, after trying every expedient, could not pay at all. At the same time with this heavy expenditure there occurred a loss in the potato crop, chiefly in Ireland, and a general deficiency in the other crops of that kingdom. It was calculated that this calamity alone would cause a loss to the country of sixteen millions. Nearly eight millions sterling were advanced for the relief of the Irish ; much foreign grain was purchased ; and it was a fortunate circumstance that the recent alteration of the law enabled corn to be freely imported. The extent of the distress in Ireland may be estimated from the fact that, in March 1847, not less than 734,000 men, numbering with their families about three millions of souls, were employed upon road-works to save them from starvation.

8. It was in the ensuing year that the pressure of all these circumstances was chiefly felt. So much money had been spent that there was not enough to conduct the ordinary business of the country. Great and rich merchants became suddenly bankrupt and penniless. Trade sank because people could not afford to buy ; and workmen, clerks, and others were dismissed, because their employers could not afford to pay them. All from the highest to the lowest felt the crisis more or less down to the end of October 1847, when the worst seemed to be past, and matters began to right themselves.

In the meanwhile, though certainly at a great sacrifice, the railway system had immensely improved the communication throughout the kingdom. It was in the month of October 1829 that the first locomotive engine ran on the Liverpool and Manchester railway, and the mighty system, which has spread over the civilized world, was commenced. From that time onwards all England and a great part of Scotland came gradually to be supplied with lines ; but it was in 1846 and 1847 that the largest operations were conducted. The length of time in the journey between London and Edinburgh became then reduced to twelve hours : a century earlier it had consumed about half as many days. Along with the progress of railways, the wonderful operations of the electric telegraph were brought into use, forming a sys-

tem of which we cannot yet predict the probable results. The 23d of November 1847 was an era in the history of our northern capital. Parliament had assembled earlier than usual on account of the commercial crisis; and on that day the queen's speech was read in Edinburgh four hours after it had been delivered in London. The telegraphic system was still further carried out in the month of August 1850, by sinking a coated wire to the bottom of the Channel, and printing at Dover a message dictated on the opposite coast of France.

9. Commercial confidence was restored, and Britain seemed on the high way to prosperity, when all was again shaken by the outbreak of the French Revolution. On the 25th of February 1848 it was known in London, and next day over the greater part of the kingdom, that Louis Philippe had fled and France was in a state of chaos. The utmost anxiety was exhibited by the people of Great Britain as to the conduct of their neighbours, for they knew that the prosperity of their own country and of themselves depended on the peace and order of the continent. As the shock spread through Austria, Prussia, and Italy, the alarm in this country became greater. It was not, however, from fear that our institutions would be insufficient to weather the storm, but certainty that war and turbulence throughout Europe would disturb our commerce and renew the sufferings of the working classes.

There were at the same time a few wicked and misguided men who endeavoured to seize on this opportunity for creating a violent revolution. In London, Edinburgh, and some other towns the public peace was disturbed, and serious tumults broke out in Glasgow. Large meetings were held at which threatening language was used; and a convention of chartists sat in London, with Mr Feargus O'Connor, a member of parliament, at its head. An event soon occurred which showed the futility of their expectations. It was announced that a petition for the charter, signed by five millions of persons, would be presented to parliament by Mr O'Connor; and it was arranged that the supporters of the petition, gathered from various parts of the country, should meet at Kennington Common, in the suburbs of London, and march in a vast procession through the city to the houses of parliament. Although the leaders of this

movement professed a peaceful object, it was feared that many of the mob would be armed, and that an attempt would be made to overpower the authorities and get possession of the city. This view created great alarm, and at the same time great alertness, among the respectable inhabitants of London. They organized themselves with so much activity and enthusiasm for the preservation of the peace, that on the day for which the procession was announced, the 10th of April 1848, the streets were occupied by two hundred thousand citizens sworn in as special constables—an instance of resolute devotion to the institutions of the land such as no other nation in ancient or modern times has exhibited. The government made great military preparations, kept in reserve for action should an insurrection actually take place; but the duty of preserving the peace fell in the first place on the well organized police of London. O'Connor and his followers were overawed by these proceedings, and the assemblage at Kennington did not amount to a tenth part of the number of the special constables. The day passed in quietness, without a single serious casualty. The petition was immediately examined, and was found to contain, instead of five millions, not two millions of signatures, many of which were fictitious. By these events, and the ridicule attending them, the hopes of the disaffected were extinguished in Britain.

10. IRISH REBELLION.—In Ireland, however, symptoms of a more alarming character prevailed. Mr Smith O'Brien, an Irish gentleman of good family, put himself at the head of a party for resisting the united parliament, and forcibly separating Ireland from Britain.' He was aided by John Mitchell, who conducted a paper called the "United Irishman," in which there appeared many exhortations to the people to deeds of violence. Arms were purchased, bodies of men trained, and it became necessary for the government to interfere. Mitchell was tried and transported for seditious writing; and on the 29th of June, the insurrection broke out in Tipperary under Smith O'Brien, by an attack on a police station. The rebels were defeated by a small body of the constabulary, and the insurrection was at once put down without the interference of the military. O'Brien and some of his followers were subsequently tried for high-treason and convicted; but their lives were spared,

and they were sent to expiate their crimes and follies in exile. Within ten years, most of them received a free pardon and were allowed to return home.

The feverish excitement which those men had created now began gradually to subside, and the beginning of the year 1849 saw tranquillity fully established and confidence returning. Under these circumstances, it was deemed politic that her Majesty should visit Ireland, where she was received by all classes with the warmest enthusiasm.

11. The rest of the empire, still looking with some anxiety to the progress of events abroad, was only disturbed by the reappearance of cholera towards the end of the year 1848, which, after committing considerable havoc in Scotland, passed into England, where in London alone nearly 15,000
 A.D. } fell victims to the pestilence. The chief political
 1848-9. } excitement in this session of parliament was created by the bill to repeal the Navigation Laws, which gave privileges to British vessels in trading to this country that foreign ships did not enjoy. These laws had been enacted by Oliver Cromwell, and kept up from a belief that they increased the number of British sailors, and were thus advantageous to the national defence; but they were really an impediment to trade, as they prevented goods from being brought to us by the cheapest conveyances.

In the autumn of 1849, the sympathy of England was strongly excited on behalf of the Hungarians, whose efforts to assert their separate nationality had been crushed by the combined forces of Austria and Russia. Some of the most conspicuous leaders had taken refuge in Turkey, and these the Czar insisted should be delivered up to his vengeance. A burst of indignation from the whole people, and the energetic attitude assumed by Lord Palmerston the foreign secretary, compelled the Russian government to moderate its exorbitant demand, and by way of compromise the refugees were transferred to Asia Minor. At the close of the year the Queen-dowager Adelaide breathed her last. During the twelve years of her widowhood, she had won general esteem by the charitable and judicious manner in which she expended her vast revenue.

The last year of the first half-century opened with brighter prospects: trade, both home and foreign, was reviving, and food was cheap. But the statesman to whom,

under Providence, we are mainly indebted for these blessings, was suddenly snatched away. Sir Robert Peel, while riding in the park, was so severely bruised by a fall from his horse, that he expired three days after. His loss was felt as a national calamity, and from the palace to the cottage his untimely decease called forth the deepest sympathy. His last public act was a speech delivered on the Greek question in the House of Commons, when the government, to enforce certain claims on the court of Athens, had blockaded the Greek ports and seized their shipping,—a proceeding which threatened for a while to interrupt the friendly feeling between the courts of England and France. Great excitement was created towards the end of the year by a papal brief dividing England into episcopal sees, and placing them under Roman-catholic bishops with Cardinal Wiseman, “archbishop of Westminster,” at their head. Numerous public meetings were held throughout the country denouncing the measure; and when parliament met in 1851, a bill was passed “to prevent the assumption of certain ecclesiastical titles from places in the United Kingdom.”

12. GREAT EXHIBITION.—The most striking domestic event of the year 1851 was the opening of the Great Exhibition of all Nations in Hyde Park, which, it was fondly imagined, would be the inauguration of a new era of peace on earth and good-will among men. As a commercial speculation it was a remarkable success. More than six millions of visits were paid to it, of which more than half a million were in the last week. The receipts of all kinds exceeded £505,000, of which nearly £365,000 were taken at the doors.

On the 2d December, Louis Napoleon, then president of the French republic, made himself master of France by a daring *coup d'état*. The hostile members of the legislature were either imprisoned or banished, while the people were overawed by an immense display of military force, and by a sanguinary attack on an unarmed crowd. These proceedings met with the cordial approval of Lord Palmerston, the foreign secretary, for which, and also for sending a despatch in which the other members of the government had not concurred, he was dismissed from office. His turn soon came, and in February 1852 he contrived to displace the Russell

ministry. That of Earl Derby succeeded, which held office until the middle of December, when it gave way to the Aberdeen administration.

The year 1852 was in many respects a memorable one. The indomitable energy of our soldiers, their contempt of death, and their splendid discipline, were never more conspicuous than in the wreck of the Birkenhead steam-ship. This vessel, which was conveying troops to the Cape of Good Hope, struck on a rock off Point Danger. The boats proving insufficient to convey the whole party ashore, the women and children, with a few sick, were placed in them—the soldiers remaining on deck under arms as if on the parade-ground. Out of 630 men on board, 436 were drowned—martyrs to their duty and to charity. In September of the same year, the Duke of Wellington calmly expired at Walmer Castle. He was honoured with a public funeral, and his body was laid in St Paul's cathedral near that of Lord Nelson.

BURMESE AND KAFFIR WARS.—During all this time hostilities had been raging in Burmah and South Africa. In consequence of a misunderstanding between the court of Ava and the Indian government, a steam squadron attacked Rangoon (Oct. 1851), and forced the entrance of the Irrawady. Martaban, Rangoon, Bassein, and Prome were stormed in 1852, and, on 20th December, Pegu was formally annexed to the British territory in India. Not long after this the King of Ava abdicated, and a peace on favourable terms was concluded with his brother and successor.

The Kaffir war, which broke out in December 1850, had its origin in border robberies. At first the Kaffirs defeated the queen's troops in many places, and committed murderous forays upon the military villages. The governor, Sir Harry Smith, had a narrow escape at Fort Cox, and so desperate was the juncture that all the colonists between fifteen and thirty were called out *en masse* to defend the frontier. Shortly after the disaster at Waterkloof (Nov. 8, 1851), General Cathcart succeeded to the government, and on the 20th November 1852 he utterly defeated, at Berea, the tribe of Basitos, whose chief Moshesh had neglected to pay a fine of 10,000 head of cattle. The Kaffir war was ended soon after by the submission of the chiefs Macomo, Sandilli, and Kreili. In 1850 the elective members of the Legisla-

tive Council resigned, when a committee was appointed to draw up a constitution for the colony, which was unanimously adopted, and the Cape of Good Hope now enjoys the right of self-government.

13. RUSSIAN WAR.—For some time past the rivalry between the French and Russian ambassadors at Constantinople had been very great, and a concession which the sultan had made in favour of the Latin church at Jerusalem so annoyed the Czar Nicholas, that a special envoy, Prince Menschikoff, was sent to the Porte, not only to require a withdrawal of the concessions, but an acknowledgment of certain claims which would have made Turkey a mere vassal of Russia. The Emperor Louis Napoleon generously gave back the privileges which were the excuse for the czar's arbitrary demand, and the other European powers interfered as mediators, but to no effect. On the 2d July 1853 a Russian army crossed the Pruth, with the view of occupying Moldo-Wallachia as "a material guarantee" until the sultan should give way. The latter immediately declared war against Russia, and the fleets of France and England, which had been sent into the Archipelago in anticipation of such an event, entered the Bosphorus. The war on the Danube was by no means glorious to the Russians, who were defeated by the Turks under Omar Pacha at Kalifat, Oltenitza, Citate, and Giurgevo, and they failed to take the fortress of Silistria. One exploit, however, covered their arms with still deeper disgrace—the unwarrantable destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope (Nov. 30).

Early in the year 1854 England and France were compelled to declare war against Russia. A strong fleet under Sir Charles Napier was sent into the Baltic, and an Anglo-French army was collected under Lord Raglan and Marshall St Arnaud on the shores of the Black Sea. If our fleet in the Baltic performed no striking exploits, the Russian ships dared not quit their harbours; while the capture of Bomarsund in the first campaign, and the bombardment of Sveaborg in the second, showed what might be expected if the war continued. In the east our success was far more striking. On the 14th September the allied army was safely landed in the Crimea, and on the 20th the Russians were driven with terrible slaughter from their fortified post on the Alma. The object of the expedi-

tion was the capture of Sebastopol, and on the 17th October the bombardment of that strong fortress began. The Russians resisted stoutly, and again ventured to meet the allies in the field. Defeated at Balaklava (25th Oct.), where our cavalry gained such glorious laurels, they once more tried their fortune at Inkermann on 5th November. Attacking in early morning, under cover of a dense fog, they quickly drove in our weak and scattered outposts. But this success was short-lived. The British soldiers soon rallied, and inch by inch the columns of the enemy were driven back, with a loss almost without parallel. During the bitter winter which followed our troops perished in great numbers of exhaustion, there being a lamentable want of sufficient food and clothing. The death of the Czar Nicholas (2d March 1855) gave hopes of peace; but that desired end was still distant. Meanwhile the siege was carried on actively by land; and the Russians having blocked up the entrance to the harbour by sinking their fleet across its mouth, our navy, under Admiral (afterwards Lord) Lyons, swept the Sea of Azoff and the coast of Circassia, and later in the year captured Kinburn at the mouth of the Dnieper. Not equally successful were the troops before Sebastopol. An attack made on the 18th June was a failure, which Lord Raglan—then field-marshal—took so much to heart that he died a few days after. On the 16th August the Russians made a final struggle by attacking the line of the Tchernaya, which was held by a Sardinian army—King Victor-Emmanuel having joined the alliance early in the year. The result was a glorious victory for the Sardinians. The end was now at hand. On the 8th of September the crowning assault was made, the French carrying the Malakoff tower, the British failing at the Redan. In the night, however, the Russians evacuated the city, retreating over the harbour to the north side, after they had blown up the defences and burnt or sunk their remaining ships. The struggle was not yet ended, but the greatest of its toils and perils were over. The following winter was passed inactively by the allied army on the heights before Sebastopol or in the ruined city; and it was withdrawn in the following summer in accordance with the treaty of Paris, signed on the 1st April 1856. By this treaty Turkey was admitted into the European commonwealth; its integrity was guaranteed by all the contracting powers; the

navigation of the Danube was opened, and a new frontier laid down so as to free the mouths of that river from Russian control; and the administration of the principalities was left to be settled by a special congress, which in 1858 so far acknowledged their right to self-government that they were declared independent of the sultan except in the payment of a fixed tribute and in case of invasion by a foreign power.

EXERCISES.

1. When did Victoria succeed to the throne? Whom did she marry? What occurred in Canada in the first year of her reign? What arrangements were made for the preservation of peace there? Who were the chartists? What outbreaks occurred? What was the fate of the ring-leaders?

2. What lucrative trade was carried on by the East India merchants in China? What interdicts were laid on the traffic? What were the extreme measures resorted to by the Chinese authorities? State the chief events in the war that followed. What final arrangement was made?

3. What was the policy of the Sultan Mahmoud to his pachas? How did the Pacha of Egypt act? What privilege did the Russian government obtain by helping the sultan? When was it revoked? What was the nature of the treaty of London? Describe the warlike operations in the Mediterranean for enforcing it.

4. Under what circumstances was Sir Robert Peel called to office in 1842? What did he do as to the Corn Laws? What tax did he impose? How did the Anti-Corn-Law League originate?

5. What was the object of the agitation in Ireland. Describe its progress. What proceedings were adopted by the government in relation to it?

6. What was the original cause of the secession from the Established Church of Scotland in 1843? What was the Veto Act? Into what body did the seceders form themselves? What movements were taking place at the same time in the Church of England? What changes were taking place in the opinions of Sir Robert Peel and his colleagues? What measure was passed in consequence of this? What ministerial change did it occasion?

7. What was the character of the measures which followed in the year 1846? What was the object of sanitary legislation? For what did the year 1846 become conspicuous? How was the railway excitement dangerous? What occurred at the same time in Ireland?

8. What was the result of the speculations and the famine of 1848? How was the crisis felt by all classes? Give a notion of the progress of the railway system. What other system increased the rapidity of intelligence? How was it extended in 1850?

9. How did the news of the French revolution affect this country? To what extent were there actual disturbances in Britain? Give an account of the project of the disaffected in London. How was it defeated?

10. What kind of men were the leaders of the disaffection in Ireland? How did their attempts terminate? What event showed that the Irish were not at heart disaffected?

11. What created the chief alarm in Britain towards the end of 1848? What was the object of the Navigation Laws? Why was it considered safe to repeal them? What difference occurred with Russia? When did the queen-dowager die? What great statesman died in July? Give the

particulars of the Greek question. What Papal encroachments were attempted, and how were they met?

12. Give an account of the Great Exhibition. What political changes occurred in France? How did they affect England? Describe the wreck of the Birkenhead. What great man died in September? What was the result of the Burmese war? Give an account of the Kaffir war.

13. What caused the quarrel between Russia and Turkey? When did the war break out? At what places did the Turks and Russians come into contact, and with what result? What part did France and England take in the war? Describe the Crimean campaigns. When did Sebastopol fall? What were the terms of the treaty of Paris?

CHAPTER XXXIX.

FROM THE RUSSIAN WAR TO THE ABYSSINIAN WAR, A. D. 1856—1868.

American Differences — The Trent Affair—Fate of Sir John Franklin—Discoveries of M'Clintock — Persian War — Chinese Wars — Indian Mutiny—Commercial Crisis—Domestic Events—Volunteer Movement — Financial Reforms—A Year of Calamity—The Second Exhibition—Cotton Famine—Marriage of the Prince of Wales—Alabama Difficulty — Cattle Plague — Sheffield Catastrophe — Belfast Riots — Gunpowder Explosion—Hostilities in Japan—Ionian Islands Surrendered—Fenian Plot—Clerkenwell Explosion—Prince of Wales in Ireland.

1. AMERICAN DIFFERENCES. — The Russian war was the occasion of a difference with the United States which threatened at one time to be very serious. In order to increase our army, it was proposed to raise a foreign legion, and it was imagined that in Canada and the States there were many British subjects who would be willing to enlist. Proper instructions were accordingly sent to Mr (now Sir J.) Crampton, our minister at Washington, who proceeded to carry out the views of his government. In so doing, it was asserted that, while keeping within the letter of the neutral laws, he had infringed their spirit and violated the sovereign rights of the Union. The President of the United States would accept of no apology, and Mr Crampton was ordered to leave the country with two of our consuls who had exposed themselves to similar charges of illegality. Through the forbearance of our government the difference was happily adjusted—the new American minister, Mr Dallas, being allowed to remain in London; but the result showed that the Washington administration was taking advantage of the position of England, and also endeavouring to make for itself what is termed

“ political capital ” with a view to the forthcoming presidential elections.

Our relations with the United States have been threatened more than once since this diplomatic rupture. In 1858 there was great irritation felt against Great Britain because our cruisers stationed off the coast of Cuba, to prevent the slave trade, had fired into vessels carrying the American flag. After some negotiation, it was agreed that neither power should interfere with vessels not under its flag, the United States government promising to send ships of their own in sufficient number to stop the inhuman traffic. In the next year another misunderstanding occurred. With the usual carelessness that has attended all our boundary treaties, that which laid down the extreme western portion where it reaches the Pacific, was so ambiguous as to admit of two constructions,—both England and America claiming the island of San Juan, the chief of a small cluster lying in the straits between Vancouver Island and the mainland. While special commissioners were still discussing the meaning of the treaty, General Harney took possession of the island, in the name of the United States government,—an assumption protested against by Mr Douglas, governor of British Columbia, on behalf of Great Britain. The Washington government, however, disavowed Harney's proceedings, and withdrew the occupying force. At the end of 1860 another case arose, which, owing to the disturbed state of American politics, was soon forgotten. One Anderson, a fugitive slave, who had been living in Canada for some years, was suddenly claimed as a murderer by the government of one of the southern states. The Canadian courts were at first in favour of the claim; but, on appeal, the superior court decided that the slave who killed his pursuer, who would have taken him back into captivity, was not a murderer according to English law, and did not therefore come under the terms of the Extradition Treaty. In the summer of this year, the Prince of Wales visited Canada, where he inaugurated the famous Victoria Bridge over the St Lawrence, and afterwards Washington and New York, where he was so enthusiastically welcomed as to lead to the hope that better feelings would prevail towards this country. Our anticipations, however, seemed at one time likely to be cruelly disappointed. The election of Mr Lincoln to the presidency

led to the secession of eleven of the slave states from the Union, and civil war between the North and South was the consequence. England, in conjunction with France, not regarding the causes of the war, but simply the fact of hostilities, recognised the South as a belligerent power, thus putting both parties on the same footing with respect to neutral countries. This, as well as her determination to preserve a strict neutrality in the unhappy contest, annoyed the Federal government, and produced a state of irritation in the Northerners, which finally found vent in an outrage on our flag. An American frigate, the *San Jacinto*, stopped an English mail-steamer, the *Trent*, and took out of her two commissioners from the South, and carried them to Boston (Nov. 1861). This illegal capture at once aroused the sensibilities of the empire; troops were hastily sent to Canada, and our North American fleet was doubled; when the Washington Cabinet, after some little delay, liberated the prisoners.

2. SIR JOHN FRANKLIN.—In the autumn of 1854 the public sympathy was strongly excited by news of the fate of Sir John Franklin and his companions, who had left England in 1845 to solve the problem of a north-west passage to the Pacific Ocean. The numerous expeditions fitted out in 1850 all returned unsuccessful: to Dr Rae, an overland explorer, belongs the melancholy credit of clearing up the mystery. It would appear that Franklin's two ships, *Erebus* and *Terror*, were crushed by icebergs in 1850. Sir John and forty of his companions were seen by the Esquimaux travelling on foot and dragging a boat over the ice. The bodies of most of the party were, according to the account given by the natives, found subsequently near Back's River, surrounded by evidence that they had been driven to cannibalism to prolong their lives. Dr Rae brought to London several articles which he had purchased from the Esquimaux, and which were recognised as having belonged to Franklin or his companions. So far the Arctic mystery had been solved; but Lady Franklin, with that fond affection and noble sense of duty which thinks nothing done while anything remains to do, at her own expense fitted out a ship, the *Fox*, which, under the command of Captain M'Clintock, sailed in 1857 to examine the spot where the remains of the seamen were supposed to be lying, and to bring them to England, or bury them with Christian rites on the shores of the Frozen

Sea. In September 1859 he returned, bringing with him, among other relics, a document found in a cairn, recording the decease of Sir John Franklin in 1847. No bodies were found, except those of two nameless men frozen to death in a boat; but no reasonable doubt any longer remained that every member of the expedition had met with a miserable end from cold and starvation amid the inhospitable northern ice.

PERSIAN WAR.—Scarcely was the Russian war concluded when hostilities broke out in the further East. The town and fortress of Herat in Affghanistan commands one of the only two roads by which an army can march from Persia towards India. To keep this place in neutral hands had long been the object of our Indian government, while Persia, urged, it is supposed, by Russian interests, had been anxious to possess it, notwithstanding specific treaties to the contrary. In 1856 the town was besieged by a Persian force, and, after a long resistance, compelled to surrender. The Shah, refusing to withdraw his army, and having, moreover, insulted our ambassador, an expedition under General Outram sailed from Bombay, which occupied the island of Karrack, took Bushire, stormed the fortifications of Mohammerah, and routed the opposing army. Further advances into the country were checked by news of the treaty of peace which had been concluded at Paris between Lord Cowley and Ferukh Khan, by which Herat was given up, and ample apology made to our ambassador, the Hon. C. Murray (March 1857).

COMMERCIAL CRISIS.—For several years past the commerce of Great Britain had been extending with an unprecedented rapidity. Slightly checked by the Russian war, it took a fresh start on the conclusion of peace. An eager thirst for riches appeared to have seized the mercantile world. Several symptoms indicated that the state of commerce was unsound, and that speculation and dishonesty were often combined. The stoppage of several commercial houses in London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, soon brought matters to a crisis. Two banks in the latter city suspended payment, and the rate of discount at the Bank of England rose as high as 10 per cent. When affairs were in this gloomy condition, when credit seemed almost driven from the market, Lord Palmerston and Sir G. C. Lewis, Chancellor of the Exchequer, on behalf of the government, authorized the bank to extend its issues of notes as necessity might require.

irrespective of the provisions of the Bank Charter Act of 1844, and promised to ask parliament for an indemnity if needed. This measure abated the panic, confidence was restored, and commercial dealings once more returned to their regular course. It would appear from a statement made in parliament that the aggregate liabilities of the commercial houses which had failed during the panic amounted to 45 millions.

3. CHINESE WAR.—At the end of 1856 our intercourse with the Chinese, which had long been in an unsettled state from their infractions of the treaty of 1842, was entirely interrupted. A small vessel bearing the British flag, and carrying British papers, was forcibly boarded by order of Yeh, the governor of Canton, and several of the crew were carried off. All demands for redress being contemptuously rejected, retaliatory measures were adopted. A number of Chinese junks were burnt, and the forts in the Canton river destroyed. A majority in the House of Commons having condemned these proceedings, Lord Palmerston dissolved parliament, when the result of a general election early in 1857 proved that the country was ready to support the honour of England in the eastern seas. The French joining with us to demand redress for grievances and insults, Canton was taken and occupied by the allied forces. After a period of inaction occasioned by the Indian mutiny, hostilities were renewed with fresh vigour; the combined fleet forced the entrance of the Peiho, and took possession of Taku; thus becoming masters of that river and Tiensin, the important granary of Northern China, in which are stored the immense supplies of rice from the south on which Peking depends for subsistence (May 1858). The emperor now became seriously alarmed, and sent commissioners to treat for peace, which was at length concluded on very advantageous terms, the country being thrown open to Europeans, and an English ambassador permitted to reside at Peking, and a Chinese envoy in London. English was to be the medium of communication between the two courts, and an indemnity of £700,000 to be paid; all the important ports were opened to our trade, the laws which proscribed Christianity repealed, and missionaries allowed to preach without molestation. But when in June 1859 the English and French ambassadors, escorted by a strong force, at once to ensure safety and enforce respect, were desirous of proceeding to Peking by the

way of the Peiho, they were stopped by the forts at the entrance of that river, and their unsuccessful attempt to force a passage cost the lives of about 450 men. To avenge this insult and teach the Chinese the necessity of observing treaties, a strong Anglo-French fleet and army were assembled in the Chinese waters in the following year. Mr Bruce, our ambassador, was temporarily suspended in favour of Lord Elgin, who had negotiated the treaty of 1858. The Chinese troops resisted at various points, but without success. The Taku forts, by which we had been repelled the year before, were captured, and the allies marched on Peking. It was now that Sankolinsin, the Tartar commander-in-chief, committed an outrage almost without precedent among civilized nations. Mr Consul Parkes and Mr Loch the ambassador's secretary, while bearing a flag of truce, were treacherously seized by the Tartars, along with Captain Brabazon, Lieut. Anderson, M. de Norman, and Mr Bowlby, the *Times* correspondent. The last four gentlemen, with most of their escort, who had been made prisoners at the same time, sank under the inhuman treatment to which they were subjected by their captors. The first two were fortunately spared and given up to the English army, which was by this time threatening to bombard Peking. In order to inflict a signal punishment for such an utter disregard of civilized usages, our forces completely destroyed the Emperor's summer palace, showing by this their desire not to inflict unnecessary severity on the Chinese population, who had had no share in the cruelties. An indemnity of £100,000 was also exacted from the government for the benefit of the families and relations of the murdered men. Before the end of October peace was concluded, the treaty of Tientsin was ratified, and a *Te Deum* chanted in the cathedral of Peking, on which the French had replaced the cross which had formerly surmounted it. In the spring of 1861 Mr Bruce, our ambassador, took up his residence in the capital; but the occupying forces remained at Canton and other ports, waiting until all the terms of the treaty should be fully carried out.

It may not be out of place to record here that in August 1858 Lord Elgin landed at Jeddo and negotiated a favourable treaty with the government of Japan, by which certain ports in that country were thrown open to European vessels, and Europeans allowed to reside there.

4. **INDIAN MUTINY.**—In February 1856, the Marquess of Dalhousie, who had been governor-general since 1847, was succeeded by Lord Canning. The prospect of an administration of unbroken peace which extended before the eyes of the new governor-general was suddenly interrupted by one of the most alarming catastrophes that ever endangered the greatness of the British empire. Early in the year 1857 the Bengal army was seized with a sudden apprehension, arising no one can tell how, that the British government had determined to render their military service the means of their religious degradation, by compelling them to use cartridges saturated with animal grease—the fat of swine being used for the pollution of the Mohammedan, and the fat of the cow for the “uncasteing” of the Hindoo. The discontent first took an active form at Berhampore, where a regiment mutinied and was disbanded. Similar disturbances took place at other stations, and even the sepoy of the Calcutta guard were tampered with. It was supposed, however, that as the matter had been properly explained to the soldiery, the discontent would cease, and that the general loyalty of the Bengal army was not affected. This proved to be a mistake. The men of the 3d Light Cavalry, stationed at Meerut, about forty miles north-east of Delhi, had shown mutinous symptoms, which the colonel still further exasperated by imprisoning eighty-five of their number. On the afternoon of Sunday, May 10, the regiment broke out into open mutiny, shot their officers, fired the cantonments, forced open the jails, and liberated the prisoners. The 30th Native Infantry at once joined the mutineers, and the 11th, though they spared their own officers, soon flung themselves into the rebellion. Then ensued a series of terrible atrocities. Officers returning with their wives and children from their usual evening drive were met by bands of infuriated sepoy, or by convicts, and murdered in their carriages. Others, as they fled from the burning houses, were cut down or shot by the insurgents; and women and children were relentlessly murdered.

From some unaccountable supineness on the part of the commander at Meerut, the English troops on the spot were prevented from inflicting instant punishment on the murderers, who were allowed to march out unmolested, and to make their way to Delhi, containing upwards of 150,000

inhabitants, the chief city of Mohammedan India, and the residence of the titular king, the successor of the Mogul emperors. In this capital of the north-west provinces, with its strong fortifications and well-stored arsenal, there was scarcely a European soldier. The native troops forming the garrison fraternized with the mutineers as soon as they approached, murdering their officers whenever they could. Hither as to a common centre flocked the mutinous soldiery from all the surrounding districts; and soon the whole army of Bengal, counting nearly 100,000 armed and well-disciplined men, was in revolt from the river Sutledge to Benares, in almost every case killing the Europeans who had petted and pampered them, and butchering delicate women and innocent babes. In the Punjaub the mutinous spirit had been checked by the energy of Sir John Lawrence and his officers. The native princes were generally faithful, and among them were conspicuous Scindia, the sovereign of Gwalior, and Holkar of Indore, although their armies took part with the revolt. The spirit of disaffection was strongest in the newly-annexed territory of Oude, where Sir Henry Lawrence was threatened in Lucknow and Sir Hugh Wheeler in Cawnpore. The latter place, before the annexation of the Punjaub, was the chief military station of India. Its balls, races, and theatre, made it one of the spots of gayest resort for European society. The old and new towns contained a population of 100,000; and as the grand trunk road crossed the Ganges at this point, it had become of considerable importance as a mart of inland commerce. The garrison now consisted of only fifty artillerymen, but they were sufficient to keep it quiet till the night of the 5th of June, when the men rose on their officers: many were killed before they could reach their cantonments, and the usual atrocities followed. The mutineers attacked the barrack hospital, in which General Wheeler had intrenched himself, and which was densely crowded, there being at this time a larger number than usual of female residents and visitors, attracted by the balls of the preceding month.

MASSACRE OF CAWNPORE.—The mutineers were soon headed by Nana Sahib, rajah of Bithoor, a small fortress eight miles higher up the river. Here the ex-peishwa of the Mahrattas had lived. Before the Mahratta war the peishwa was the sovereign rajah of Central India, and was

to the Hindoos what the King of Delhi was to the Moham-medans. The Bajee Rao died possessed of property in jewels and treasures to the value of five millions sterling. He left no children, but had adopted two sons, of whom Nana Sahib was the elder—a man about thirty-five years old. He applied for the ex-peishwa's pension to be continued to him, but it was refused; and he had several suits against the government in the law-courts, but lost them all. He appeared of a jovial, hospitable disposition, and cultivated the English society at Cawnpore. He now threw off the mask, joined the mutineers, and was soon at the head of 12,000 men. On the 26th June, Wheeler was forced to capitulate. Nana Sahib swore to spare the prisoners' lives, to allow them to take their arms and a lac and a half of rupees, and to furnish them with boats to get to Allahabad. On the 27th, the whole of the English party went down to the river: the men were put into boats, the women and children standing on the shore, when Nana ordered his guns to open on them. Some were sunk, others burnt, a few men reached the shore only to be cut down. A single boat managed to get through the ordeal, and escaped ten miles down the river: it was pursued and captured, and of the unhappy survivors brought back to Cawnpore, some were cut to pieces, while others were thrown into the Ganges to bear the first news of their massacre to their countrymen at Allahabad, who seeing the corpses floating by, brought them on shore and buried them. The women and children who were left—between 200 and 300—were marched back to the cantonment. General Havelock, that model of a Christian warrior, gradually fought his way up to Cawnpore, and on the 17th July, having won his ninth victory, recovered the ill-omened place. The fate of the wretched prisoners was now discovered. On the 16th, when Nana Sahib saw that the battle was going against him, he ordered the indiscriminate butchery of the women and children yet left alive; and when the English troops marched in the next day, the rooms and yards in which the prisoners had been confined were found two inches deep in the blood of the victims. Long tresses of hair, scraps of paper, torn bibles and prayer-books, workboxes and unfinished work, and the little round hats of children scattered about on the red floor, told but too well the harrowing tale.

Meantime Lucknow was closely besieged by the mutineers. Sir Henry Lawrence, one of a noble pair of brothers, having died of the effects of a wound, was succeeded by Major Banks, who was killed on the 21st July, when Colonel Inglis assumed the command, and held the place until it was relieved by Havelock (25th September). It was not, however, until March 1858 that Sir Colin Campbell (afterward Lord Clyde) removed the garrison and British residents in safety from the beleaguered city. What became of Nana Sahib was never certainly known, but he is supposed to have died miserably in the jungle.

Long before Lucknow was finally relieved, Delhi had been recovered from the mutineers. The place was assaulted on the 14th September, and until the 20th the fight was maintained in the streets and palaces. Step by step, not without great loss of life—more from the excessive heat than in battle—the mutineers were driven from all their strongholds, and by the end of the year the rebellion was trampled out. But these results were dearly bought by the loss of some of our noblest heroes, such as Havelock, Nicholson, Sir H. Lawrence, and others of less fame, but hardly of less worth. England, ever prompt to relieve the distresses of others, did not forget her afflicted children in the East. Half a million of money was collected for the relief of the sufferers by the mutiny, and when in 1861 a famine desolated some of the provinces that had been the chief seat of the rebellion, upwards of £100,000 were quickly raised to purchase food for our starving Indian fellow-subjects.

5. DOMESTIC EVENTS.—The year 1858 was not unfertile in events of domestic and general importance. Under the former may be included the marriage of the Princess-Royal to Prince Frederick William of Prussia; among the latter may be reckoned the launch of the Great Eastern iron steamship and the laying of the Atlantic Telegraph. The Great Eastern is the largest vessel ever built. Seven thousand tons of iron were employed in the construction of the hull, which is 692 feet long, 118 feet broad, and 70 feet high. But a greater trial of science and engineering skill was the laying of the Atlantic Telegraph. After the electric wires had been safely laid across the seas which separate England from the continent, commercial and scientific men naturally began to inquire whether it was not possible to connect in a similar manner Europe with America. Successful experi-

ments had shown that distance was not an insurmountable obstacle to the rapid and correct transmission of messages, and Cape Race was only 1650 miles from Cape Clear. The bed of the ocean between these two points had been sounded, and was found to be a high sandy plateau eminently favourable to the preservation of an electric cable. At length a company was formed, a cable 2050 miles long was manufactured, and in August 1857 an attempt was made to lay it. This unhappily proved a failure, the cable having broken after nearly 400 miles had been sunk. In the summer of 1858 a second attempt was made, and, after sundry mishaps, the whole line was lowered to the bottom of the ocean, in some places at a depth exceeding 8000 feet, and the shores of Ireland and Newfoundland were brought into immediate communication. The first telegrams transmitted were a complimentary message from the Queen to President Buchanan and his answer. Soon after this, the wire became dumb, in consequence of some defect in the insulation of the cable. A third attempt was made in 1865, but the cable broke in the mid-Atlantic. The next year proved more fortunate; not only was a new line successfully laid down, but the broken one of 1865 was fished up, thus supplying two separate routes of communication between the old world and the new. So complete is now the telegraphic communication between England and America, that a signal can be conveyed from London to San Francisco, a distance of more than 6000 miles, in 120 seconds.

In the following year (1859) a Reform Bill, introduced by Mr Disraeli, chancellor of the exchequer during the short-lived administration of the Earl of Derby, was rejected, and parliament dissolved. The new House of Commons was hardly less hostile to the Conservative government than the old one, and the result was that a vote of want of confidence drove the Earl from office and made way for Lord Palmerston, with Earl Russell (not then raised to the peerage) as foreign minister, and Mr Gladstone as chancellor of the exchequer. It was during Lord Derby's administration that Jewish members were allowed to take their seats in the House of Commons.

VOLUNTEER MOVEMENT.—The great military and naval preparations made by France had long excited a deep feeling of distrust in the pacific intentions of Napoleon III., which found their culmination in the autumn of 1859. On

a sudden a ballad from Mr Tennyson, the poet laureate, acted like a spark of fire on an inflammable mass. A practical direction was given to men's thoughts, and volunteer rifle corps were raised in every town and city. With a unanimity and enthusiasm hardly to be expected when no actual danger threatened, the youth of Great Britain sprang to arms, and within twelve months there were 150,000 on the volunteer rolls, of whom at least one-third were in a condition to serve in the field, if the expected foe should come. In June 1860 the Queen reviewed 20,000 volunteers in Hyde Park, and a larger number was reviewed at Edinburgh later in the year. Although the enthusiasm of the first impulse has died away, the volunteer force now amounts to 180,000, of whom about one-half are fit to stand beside the regular army. The love of our youth for military exercises, especially in the larger towns where opportunities for the ordinary athletic sports are rare, promises to keep the volunteer ranks well filled; so that while our regular troops are employed abroad, we may be safe from insult at home.

FINANCIAL REFORMS.—Although the volunteer movement showed distrust of France, the statesmen of both countries were busy arranging the terms of a treaty of commerce that should bind the two nations closer together by the ties of self-interest. By this treaty, of which Mr Cobden was the chief negotiator on the part of England, the French tariff was modified so as to admit, under a graduated scale of duties, all kinds of English manufacture or produce; and with us, it helped to sweep away the last remnant of protection, free trade being established to the fullest extent, with the exception of a few articles for the sake of the revenue they produce. The abolition of the excise upon paper was a consequence of this treaty; but it was not carried without considerable opposition. The bill respecting it passed the House of Commons, but was rejected by the Peers. The Lower House protested against this infringement of their right to tax the people, but took no farther steps on this great constitutional question, as the money produced by the tax was wanted, and there was no desire to bring the two houses of parliament into violent collision. In the following year (1861) the bill, embodied in the annual budget, was passed, and the manufacture of paper became entirely free.

A YEAR OF CALAMITY.—The year 1861 was remarkable

for its disasters. Accidents of the most appalling and calamitous nature occurred with startling rapidity. In June a tremendous fire broke out in some warehouses near the south end of London Bridge, laying waste many acres of buildings, and destroying property valued at nearly two millions sterling. It raged with the utmost fury for seven days, and was not finally rooted out from its last lurking places in vaults and underground stores for many weeks. In the early part of the year terrific gales strewed our shores with wrecks, and threw down the spire of Chichester cathedral. In two dreadful railway catastrophes happening within a week of each other—at the Clayton tunnel near Brighton, and at Kentish-Town in the north-western suburb of London—the loss of life was equal to that counted in many a battle. In this sad year our beloved queen lost her mother and her husband, both inexpressibly beloved, both unutterably lamented. Hitherto her reign had been happy and prosperous, almost beyond example, and these were the only two great afflictions she had ever known in her life. The death of Prince Albert (14th Dec. 1861), after a very short illness, was felt as if each family had lost a valued friend, and called forth the deepest sympathies of the nation for the bereaved sovereign, who, by the simplicity of her domestic life, the anxious care with which she trained her children, and the mildness of her reign, had fixed herself immovably in the affections of her subjects.

The deceased prince, who had originated the Great International Exhibition of 1851, did not live to see the great experiment repeated, though almost his latest thoughts were occupied with the forthcoming "World's Fair" of 1862, which opened at South Kensington, and was visited by more than six millions of persons. In the following year the Prince of Wales married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark, whose arrival in London a few days before was made the occasion of public rejoicings unusual among such a calm undemonstrative people as the English. All the streets were thronged with an eager and loyal crowd. Every window and balcony was filled with spectators; and the progress of the youthful princess under an endless series of banners and triumphal arches was more like the entrance of a mighty conqueror flushed with victory, than of a gentle retiring maiden come to make her home among us.

6. **THE COTTON FAMINE.**—Although England happily escaped being involved in the hostilities which raged so terribly for nearly four years between the Northern and Southern portions of the United States, a large section of her manufacturing population suffered great distress in consequence of the supplies of American cotton being cut off by the blockade of the Confederate harbours. By the end of the first year of the war almost every cotton-mill in Lancashire was closed, and nearly half a million of persons were thrown out of work and reduced to destitution. To relieve such a terrible mass of distress, which was far beyond the power of the suffering districts, large amounts were raised by public subscriptions, which poured in from every part of the world where Englishmen were to be found. By this means a fund little short of three-quarters of a million sterling was soon collected, in addition to contributions in other forms than that of money. The number of sufferers from this Cotton Famine (as it was well called) was far greater than those counted in the parish rate-books—many thousands with honest pride struggling on without applying for parochial relief, though not refusing to receive help from voluntary contributions. By this means the smaller rate-payers were saved from being utterly ruined, and the manufacturing population from becoming utterly pauperized. Such an instance of patient endurance by such vast numbers is perhaps unexampled in the history of the world, and is a striking evidence of the great progress of the people since the close of the French war, and of the power of education to control the fiercer passions of our nature. The Lancashire cotton-spinners saw that the misfortune which had fallen upon them so suddenly was one over which their own government had no control, and turned a deaf ear to the demagogues who would have induced them to acts of violence. By slow degrees, Indian and other cotton supplied the place of the American staple, and the mills gradually resumed work, but it was not until the year 1866 that special relief became unnecessary.

ALABAMA DIFFICULTY.—As this country was neutral during the American civil war, each of the belligerents resorted to its markets for warlike stores. The North purchased arms and ammunition, while the South bought ships. Although there could be no doubt, according to the Law of

Nations, of the perfect right of a neutral power to supply warlike stores to each belligerent, provided it were done impartially, differences arose between the Federal and the British government as to the building and sale of ships of war. One of these vessels, known as the *Alabama*, sailed from Liverpool, was manned and armed at sea, and was so successful in her cruises as almost to drive the mercantile fleet of the Northern States from the ocean. When the war was over, the government of the United States demanded compensation for the alleged piracies of the *Alabama*, on the ground that by failing to carry out our municipal laws, and by receiving that vessel into our harbours, we had in fact ceased to be neutral during the contest. The discussion, which began angrily, softened with time, and when the Derby administration succeeded to office in 1866, a proposal was made to refer the matter to arbitration, which was declined by the American government, unless the alleged premature acknowledgment of the Southern States as belligerents was also referred to the arbitrator. To this Lord Stanley, the foreign minister, would not consent, and there the matter rests at present.

THE CATTLE PLAGUE.—Before our cotton manufacturers had recovered from the distress occasioned by the American war, another calamity befel Great Britain, less terrible in its visitation, but causing great deprivation to the working-classes. For some years a destructive murrain had been raging among the horned-cattle on the continent. It broke out in Russia, and gradually extended westwards over Prussia, Germany, and Holland. At last it reached our own shores, where it spread as rapidly and mysteriously as the cholera, and, like that disease, was equally untractable. It was amenable to no remedies, and no precautions could check infection. At last extraordinary powers were conferred by parliament on a special commission, which ordered all infected cattle to be killed, enforced the strictest isolation on all suspected districts, and controlled the removal of animals by severe quarantine laws. These desperate remedies succeeded at last: the contagion was stamped out, but not before it had killed 306,000 beasts, estimated at £3,000,000. The effect of this murrain was greatly to enhance the price of meat, raising it almost beyond the reach of multitudes of the poorer classes. These sufferings were increased in

1865 by an outbreak of cholera, which, though less virulent than during its former visitations, raged with awful destructiveness among the wretched population in the eastern quarter of London.

THE SHEFFIELD CATASTROPHE.—The year 1864 was distinguished by several deplorable calamities, not the least of them being the destruction of the Bradford reservoir in the neighbourhood of Sheffield. At the dead of night (11th March 1864) a huge dam constructed to pen up the waters from the adjacent hills suddenly gave way, and the tumultuous flood, rushing like a cataract down the valley, carried away in a moment trees, barns, mills, houses, and their sleeping inhabitants. When day broke upon the scene of desolation it was found that 250 human beings had perished—some drowned in their beds, others swept away as they were trying to escape, others crushed beneath the ruins of their own dwellings.

Perhaps more startling and more terrible to the nation generally, as affecting all travellers, was the news of an atrocious murder committed on the North London line, the victim being a Mr Briggs, who had been killed after a fearful struggle in a railway carriage, and his body afterwards thrown out of the window, the murderer apparently hoping that some passing train would run over the body and destroy the traces of his crime (9th July 1864). For a long while the endeavours of the police to discover the assassin were ineffectual, until at last a few trivial circumstances pointed to a German, a tailor by trade, who had escaped to New York. Here he was quickly followed, and surrendered into the hands of justice; and being brought back to England, the proofs of his guilt were so indisputable, that he suffered the just penalty of his atrocious misdeed.

BELFAST RIOTS.—While all England was still under the excitement of this railway murder, startling news arrived of dreadful riots in Belfast, a town in which religious and party feeling has always run high. On the 8th August, the Orangemen, exasperated by the inauguration of a statue of the famous Daniel O'Connell in Dublin, burnt the great "liberator," as he was called, in effigy, and next day buried his ashes with mock solemnity. This gave serious offence to the Roman-catholics, who attacked the procession, broke the windows of the Protestant chapels, and sacked a few

private houses. On the following day the riot became more violent—each party mustered in large bodies in the streets, and fought desperately whenever they came into collision. The police would have interfered, but were too weak, and were pelted with stones by both parties. At last the military were sent for: 300 soldiers, reinforced by 1000 policemen, arrived, but even these were unable to stop the rioting, though some of the ringleaders were apprehended, the mobs fired upon, several killed, and many wounded. As frequently happens in such cases, children and others suffered who had taken no part in the disturbances. After a short truce, from the 13th to the 16th, the riots began again, and were continued until the 19th. The number of victims must have been over 200, for besides the nine killed and 176 wounded and taken to the hospital, there were many who were treated privately in their own homes, some of whom never recovered from the injuries they had received.

But the catalogue of the disasters of 1864 is not ended. On the 1st October there was a terrific explosion of gunpowder in Plumstead marshes. Two isolated buildings, standing on the banks of the Thames, just within the river-wall, were used for storing and embarking powder only, and contained from 120,000 to 150,000 pounds. Ten persons were killed instantaneously, and as many terribly wounded. The magazines were entirely destroyed, and a breach of more than 100 yards was made in the embankment by which the river is confined. The accident occurred at nearly low water, but it was feared, that as the tide rose, the low lands within the wall would be inundated. Prompt measures were however taken, and by the assistance of engineers and sappers from Woolwich, the gap in the wall was repaired sufficiently and in time to keep out the rising waters. The explosion was distinctly felt at places from thirty to forty miles distant, and was by many persons mistaken for a slight earthquake. The catastrophe is supposed to have been occasioned by some workmen smoking in a barge while they were taking gunpowder on board.

8. JAPAN.—The opening of the Japanese harbours to the commerce of the world was at first violently opposed by the subordinate officers of government and some of the nobility. The rapacity and dishonesty of many of the English traders

seemed to widen the breach, until at last the treaties were set at defiance by both parties. Affairs were in this dangerous posture when Mr Richardson, while taking a ride into the country, was attacked and murdered by the followers of the Prince of Satsuma, who immediately withdrew to his principality (Sept. 1862). As no satisfaction could be obtained either from the Mikado or supreme governor, or from his viceroy, the Tycoon, a British squadron was sent to bombard the fortified town of Kagosima. The fire was opened on the 15th August 1863, to which the forts vigorously replied; but before sunset the place was in flames, and three of the forts were silenced. On the following morning the bombardment was renewed, and did not cease until the town was reduced to a mass of ruins; the palace, arsenal, factories, and three Japanese steam-vessels were utterly destroyed, with but inconsiderable loss to the English attacking force. These violent but perhaps necessary proceedings did not tend to conciliate the Japanese people, and our footing in the islands is still very precarious. In 1868, the Daimios, or heads of clans, rebelled against the Tycoon, who had made the treaties with the foreign powers, and not only drove him to take refuge almost under the guns of the English fleet, but attempted to keep Europeans out of the inland waters to which the treaties admitted them.

IONIAN ISLANDS.—In October 1862, Otho, first king of Greece, was dethroned in a revolution, fortunately unaccompanied by bloodshed. The vacant crown was offered to the Duke of Saxe-Coburg, who declined to accept it, and to Prince Alfred, who was elected king by 230,000 votes. The prince, however, as belonging to the family of one of the protecting powers, was disqualified, and the choice eventually fell upon Prince William-George of Denmark, brother to the Princess of Wales, who was unanimously proclaimed as King George I., France and England approving of the nomination* (30th March 1863). The latter country took advantage of the favourable opportunity to be relieved of the barren Protectorate of the Ionian Islands, which were united to the kingdom of Greece.

In 1863 the British government became involved in a personal dispute with the Brazilian authorities. A British vessel having been wrecked on a distant part of the coast,

the ship was plundered, and there was some reason to believe that part of the crew had been murdered. Our ambassador required an indemnity for the robbery, and the trial of the presumed wreckers. While this dispute was going on, some British naval officers were arrested, and as the government would make no apology for the insult, reprisals were ordered to be made, and five merchant vessels were seized. These were given up on an undertaking to pay the indemnity to be settled in London: the other question being referred to the arbitration of the King of the Belgians, who decided that as the naval officers were not in uniform, "there was neither premeditation of offence nor offence to the British Navy."

ASHANTEE.—In 1864, we became involved in hostilities with the King of Ashantee, who had made war on the Fantees, an African tribe on the Guinea coast under British protection, on account of their refusing to give up two fugitives whom he claimed. The governor of the English settlement on the Gold Coast ordered a force to march into the interior (the bush, as it is called) to drive out the Ashantees and punish their invasion of a friendly territory (February 1864). The expedition was mismanaged from the first, and the wet season setting in earlier than had been anticipated, the English force of about 1200 men had to retire without seeing an enemy or firing a shot. Fever attacked the retreating force, of which only a skeleton returned to the settlement alive. The affair gave rise to a sharp parliamentary discussion, in the course of which the governor was severely censured for his policy.

9. THE FENIANS.—The termination of the civil war in the United States set loose a number of restless men, who entered into a plot for revolutionizing Ireland, separating it from Great Britain, and establishing a republic. A vigorous organization was arranged in America, large sums of money were collected for the purchase of arms, and a number of persons who had served in the Federal armies came over to this country to propagate their views, and to drill their misguided followers. The conspiracy spread rapidly in Ireland among the lower and more ignorant classes, not a single person of note or reputation countenancing it, though there were many who sympathized with the movement, and would have joined it, had there been the faintest prospect of success. In order to protect the loyal people of Ireland, and shield

the ignorant from the consequences of their own folly, the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended. The Fenian leaders were immediately seized, others fled the country. Meanwhile, notwithstanding a schism in America between the chiefs of the conspiracy, an invasion of Canada was organized, which was defeated, with the loss of a few lives and the capture of the leaders, who were sentenced to death, but were spared by the intercession of the home government. Finding it necessary to strike a bold blow, in order to keep up the organization and to prevent a falling off in the contributions, the "centres," or chiefs, in the north of England determined to attack Chester Castle, which contained a large store of arms and ammunition, and was guarded by about half-a-score of men. Between 1400 and 1500 Fenians suddenly arrived in that city on the morning of the 11th February 1867; but they had been betrayed by an accomplice. Prompt measures were taken to frustrate their attempt; a number of special constables were sworn in, the volunteers called out, and 500 soldiers hurriedly despatched from London. The opportunity was lost, and the Fenians disappeared as hastily and mysteriously as they had arrived.

It would seem that the proposed attack upon Chester Castle was part of a general rising, for on the 13th February about 800 Fenians suddenly attacked the coast-guard station at Cahirciveen in Kerry, where they seized the arms, killed a policeman, and cut the telegraph wires. Troops were immediately hurried to the scene of the disturbance, but the insurgents fled into the mountains and dispersed, a few only being captured. Another Fenian rising occurred on the 5th March. The mail-train from Cork to Dublin was thrown off the line, and the telegraph wires were cut. At Tallaght near Dublin, twelve policemen were attacked by 200 Fenians, who summoned them to surrender. A short struggle ensued, shots were exchanged, five of the insurgents were killed, and eighty-three made prisoners. At Drogheda, about 1000 Fenians attempted to drive the police out of the market-house; but they failed, and forty of their number were captured. At Kilmallock the police-station was attacked, when three of the assailants were killed, and fourteen made prisoners. Similar outrages occurred in various parts of Ireland, but they were so promptly punished, that the hopes of the Fenians were quite crushed out, and the leaders

hastened away as fast as they could. The prisoners were tried, and the ringleaders sentenced to death, but were pardoned in the hope that the clemency of the government would be duly appreciated.

But it was not so: two of the leading men in the conspiracy, by name Deasy and Kelly, having been captured in Lancashire, a plot was organized for rescuing them from the hands of justice as they were being conveyed from the police-court to the prison. The van in which they were riding was attacked on the 18th September by a large body of men mostly armed with revolvers, a policeman in charge was shot dead, and the leaders were set at liberty. Such a daring attack upon the law was promptly punished: the ringleaders were caught, tried, and convicted, and three of them were executed, notwithstanding the energetic attempts to procure a commutation of the sentence.

Even this severity failed to check the lawlessness of the conspirators. Some of their number having been betrayed and captured in London, a few miserable creatures concocted a scheme for liberating them from the prison in Clerkenwell, where they were detained awaiting their trial. Although wretchedly poor, they managed to buy a large quantity of gunpowder, which, in broad daylight, they placed against the wall of the prison, and then set fire to it. A wide breach was made in the wall, but the prisoners, who would have been the first victims of the miscalculating zeal of their friends, were saved from destruction by having been locked up in their cells, in consequence of warnings that had been received from one of the confederates. But their innocent neighbours were less fortunate. The houses immediately opposite the prison wall were blown down, killing six persons, and wounding 131, of whom 11 died afterwards. The damage done to property was estimated at £20,000. In the spring of 1868 Fenianism was the motive of two other crimes: one, the attack upon Prince Alfred at Sidney, where he had arrived during the course of a tour through the British colonies; the other, the assassination of Mr M'Gee, who had been engaged in Smith O'Brien's rising in 1848, but was now an earnest defender of law and order in Canada, where he had attained great political eminence.

10. In the year 1865 Lord Palmerston died. He had been in office almost continuously since 1807, and prime

minister from February 1855, with a short exception, until his decease at the ripe age of 81. Earl Russell succeeded him in the ministry, but retired from office in 1866 in consequence of the opposition made to the Reform Bill introduced by his government in that year. The Earl of Derby now became prime minister, and in 1867 a Reform Bill was passed supplementary to the great measure of 1832, which the premier, then Lord Stanley, had warmly supported. But failing health compelled him to retire from public life, and Mr Benjamin Disraeli, the chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the House of Commons, succeeded to his office. It was a time of difficulty and trial, and with the hope of reviving the naturally loyal feelings of the Irish people, the Prince of Wales went to Dublin at Easter 1868, to be publicly installed a knight of the Order of St Patrick. He was accompanied by the Princess, and both were received with the most cordial welcome. In the opening of the same year, an expedition, under Sir Robert (now Lord) Napier, was sent to Abyssinia to recover a number of Englishmen and others whom the king detained in captivity. After a march of nearly 400 miles inland, through a pathless and almost barren country, the fortress of Magdala was stormed, King Theodore slain, and the prisoners restored to liberty. This ended the war, and the British force withdrew with scarcely the loss of a single soldier.

EXERCISES.

1. What caused our first differences with the United States? What was the result? What took place at San Juan? What do you know of the Anderson case? What happened in the United States on the election of Mr Lincoln? What do you understand by the Trent outrage?
2. What is known of the fate of Sir John Franklin? What attempts have been made to authenticate the story? What has been the result of these Arctic explorations? Give an account of the Persian war. Give an account of the commercial crisis in 1857.
3. What was the cause of the Chinese war? In what treaty did it end? Give the chief conditions. How was the treaty observed? What took place at the mouth of the Peiho? Give a sketch of the war and its results. What took place in Japan?
4. Who succeeded Lord Dalhousie? When and where did the Indian mutiny break out? What was its alleged cause? What do you know of Delhi and Cawnpore? What native princes remained faithful? Give a sketch of the massacre of Cawnpore. By whom was Lucknow relieved? How did England assist the sufferers?
5. What notable marriage was celebrated in 1858? What large ship was launched? Give the history of the Atlantic Telegraph. What changes of ministry occurred? Give an account of the volunteer movement.

What financial reforms were carried out? What remarkable disasters happened in 1861? What great domestic events occurred in 1862 and 1863?

6. What occasioned the cotton famine? How was the distress relieved? When did the famine end? What was the Alabama difficulty? What methods were proposed to arrange it. Give an account of the Cattle Plague. What precautions were taken against it, and what damage did it occasion?

7. Give an account of the Sheffield catastrophe. What terrible crime was committed in the same year? What occasioned the Belfast riots, and how did they terminate? What violent explosion occurred near London?

8. What occurred in Japan? What change took place in Greece? Who was elected to the vacant throne? What was done with respect to the Ionian Islands? What was the nature of the differences with Brazil, and how were they ended? What calamity occurred on the Guinea coast?

9. Who were the Fenians? What precautions were taken against them? What happened in Canada? What occurred at Chester? Describe the events in Ireland in the month of March? What happened at Manchester? Describe the Clerkenwell outrage. How did the loyal people act?

10. What famous person died in 1865? What political change followed? Describe the royal visit to Dublin. Give an account of the expedition to Abyssinia.

CHAPTER XL.

PRESENT STATE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

1. HAVING now traced the history of public events in Great Britain and Ireland during a period of nearly two thousand years, it may enable us the better to know and appreciate the tendency of the events we have recorded, to take a glance at the present state of the inhabitants of this country, that we may see what they have gained or lost by the progress of time.

Of all the objects that now surround us which are the product of man's labour, there were none in existence when Julius Cæsar landed on the Kentish shore, unless perhaps the great stone circles of Stonehenge and other rude monuments of a like kind. A few crumbling walls, some earthen camps and slender fragments of mansions and temples, are all that we possess of what the Romans may have left behind them when they bade a final adieu to this distant isle. Even from the Saxons, who have contributed something more valuable in our institutions, we have derived but scanty architectural remains. A few unadorned towers—perhaps one or two small pristine churches—are all we can attribute to them, and the authenticity of these is doubted.

We thus pass over more than a thousand years before we find that any considerable portion of our ancient buildings were reared. Some of the churches with round arches, such as Durham Cathedral, were built during the period between the Norman conquest and the end of the twelfth century. A few of the English castles, which consist of massive square towers like the White Tower of London, are of similar antiquity. Most of the fine Gothic churches, however, which are still the glory of England, were erected between the year twelve hundred and the year fifteen hundred. These buildings are known by their high towers and steeples, their pointed arches, and their richly ornamented windows. Besides the churches still in good preservation, there are many ruined edifices in England, Scotland, and Ireland, with parts of some mansions yet inhabited, which were built during this period. It will, however, be observed that the finest churches are those which have remained as they were built in the fourteenth or fifteenth century, and that there are scarcely any of the castles or inhabited mansions which have not received additions at later times. In fact, the lordly domicile of the fourteenth century would not at present accommodate a physician in good practice or a respectable merchant or tradesman.

2. England is conspicuous for the handsome mansions of the nobility and rich gentry. Except a few old fortified towers, preserved more as curiosities than for use, these buildings are not older than the accession of Henry the Seventh, and by far the greater portion of them were built after the reign of Elizabeth. We recognise the edifices raised in England after the wars of the Roses by their wide windows and doors, and their great extent of area, which show that they were erected more for comfort and hospitality than for defence. Even these, built in what is called the Tudor style, are rare in comparison with the number of handsome structures whose date mounts no higher than the reign of Charles the Second. Many of the old castles were destroyed by Oliver Cromwell and the parliamentary generals in the civil wars of the seventeenth century. The buildings erected after the Restoration were of a still less warlike character than those which had been raised during the Tudor dynasty; and wherever we see one entirely devoted to comfort and ornament in the northern parts of England, we may be sure that it was built after the return of the Stewarts. In Scotland, especially in the neighbourhood of the English border, and in a great

part of Ireland, internal wars and feuds were continued to a later period than in the centre of England. The traveller will easily observe the existing marks of such a state of society, for whenever he meets with a house more than a hundred and fifty years old in Scotland, it bears some marks of having been fortified. In fact, down to the end of the rebellion of 1745, the country gentleman whose house was in or near the Highlands, required to have always at hand a few stout fellows accustomed to the use of arms. The cattle were driven at night to the neighbourhood of the mansion-house or castle, and its inhabitants had to be ready to protect their property from bands of plunderers, sometimes by firing small cannons from the interior, and at others by going in armed bands after the depredators. The same precautions were required along the border, but not to so late a period; while the distracted condition of Ireland has often rendered it necessary in very recent times to fortify private houses.

Whoever looks about him, in any part of the empire, will see that the old buildings to which the foregoing remarks refer are, comparatively speaking, not numerous. In England it is the practice to use brick for private residences, in Scotland stone; and in both countries, a convenient dwelling-house is the production of recent times. The humbler classes would not now be content to live as the great did two hundred years ago. Wherever we find apartments well aired, dry, light, and with means for the removal of impurities, we may be sure that they have been recently built, or improved at a great expense. The houses in London and most of the large towns in England are entirely modern structures, and not intended to last long. They are produced by the industry and riches of the day, and are so temporary, that if the country were going to ruin, as some ancient kingdoms have gone, London, Manchester, and many other large towns, would soon be mere heaps of brick dust.

Very few persons, except those who have visited the remoter parts of Ireland or of the Scottish Highlands, can form a correct idea of the dwellings of the peasantry in bygone times. The turf hovels, where the smoke comes out by the door as much as by the chimney, and where there is not a window admitting light enough to read by, will give a tolerable idea of the manner in which the country people generally lived a hundred years ago. Such cottages are very picturesque in a landscape with woods and hills; but to be obliged

to live in them would be felt a very great calamity by those who have been brought up in the well furnished houses of the present time.

3. The towns had of old few of the comforts and the conveniences which are now thought indispensable. In the centre, there was usually one broad street, but all the other thoroughfares were narrow lanes, through many of which a common cart could not pass. They were not straight, or on any regular plan, and the houses projected so much that the passengers could not see many yards before them, but had to wind their way among the buildings. The streets were not paved, and as underground drains were not used, all the filth of the houses was thrown into them. Accordingly, in going through a large town, and seeing everything orderly and peaceful, no idea can be formed of the different condition of such places when they were not above a fourth of their present size. At the period when London, now inhabited by nearly three millions of people, did not contain above half a million, it was in a much more disorderly and dangerous state. Mr Macaulay thus describes it:—

“ When the evening closed in, the difficulty and danger of walking about London became serious indeed. The garret windows were opened, and pails were emptied, with little regard to those who were passing below. Falls, bruises, and broken bones were of constant occurrence. For, till the last year of the reign of Charles the Second, most of the streets were left in profound darkness. Thieves and robbers plied their trade with impunity: yet they were hardly so terrible to peaceable citizens as another class of ruffians. It was a favourite amusement of dissolute young gentlemen to swagger by night about the town, breaking windows, upsetting sedans, beating quiet men, and offering rude caresses to pretty women. Several dynasties of these tyrants had, since the Restoration, domineered over the streets. The Muns and Tityre Tus had given place to the Hectors, and the Hectors had been recently succeeded by the Scourers. At a later period arose the Nicker, the Hawcubite, and the yet more dreaded name of Mohawk. The machinery for keeping the peace was utterly contemptible. There was an act of common council which provided that more than a thousand watchmen should be constantly on the alert in the city, from sunset to sunrise, and that every inhabitant should take his turn of duty. But this act was negligently executed. Few of those who were summoned

left their homes; and those few generally found it more agreeable to tipple in alehouses than to pace the streets."

Of course there are many crimes still committed in so large a place as London, but they appear more numerous than they used to be, only because they are more frequently detected. From the offences that were formerly committed openly and audaciously, we may judge how many were perpetrated in secret. People were alive not many years ago who could remember, what seems now almost incredible, that a mounted highwayman would stop the coach of a nobleman in one of the principal streets, hold a pistol to his head, rob him, and get clear off. A newspaper of the reign of George II. complains that the business of the hackney-coachmen was suffering greatly from the increase of street robberies, "so that people, especially in an evening, choose rather to walk than ride in a coach, on account that they are in a readier posture to defend themselves, or to call out for help if attacked." In our days, when any one disappears, and a murder is supposed to have been committed, all the officers of justice are at work, and the whole country is in a state of excitement. But so late as George the Third's reign, it was known that many people annually disappeared in London, in parts of the town where no police or officers of justice dared attempt to search for their bodies or apprehend the murderers.

4. It cannot, indeed, be easily conceived how difficult it then was to find any place or person in a town. Not only were the streets narrower and more winding, but they had no names on them, the houses were not numbered, and the names of their occupants were not fixed on the doors, as is now done. Since their places of business could not be found by means of numbers, tradesmen made their signs as conspicuous as possible. Thus, when a person advertised his wares to customers, instead of saying that his shop bore such a number, he had to give a long description like this: "At the sign of the Blue Dragon and the Golden Crown, beside the Red Lion Inn, at the broad part of the Strand, nearly opposite to Exeter Change." Each tradesman strove to make his sign more conspicuous than his neighbour's. A writer in the beginning of George the Third's reign complained that the sign-irons of a shop would sometimes weigh four or five hundred pounds. They not only impeded the narrow passages, but sometimes gave way, tearing the front of the house with them, and crushing several people to death. It was not until the year

1764 that even in the city of London these things began to be remedied, and it was thought a great improvement that the names of the streets were written up on the corners. Soon afterwards it was observed, that some of the nobility and gentry, carrying out this system, put their names on brass plates on their doors. Then the houses were numbered, and the large dangerous signs became unnecessary.

Scarcely thirty years have elapsed since the brilliant lighting of the streets by gas became general in large towns. On the front railings of some houses not very old a projection like the mouth of a trumpet may occasionally be noticed: this was the extinguisher for putting out the torch or link which a servant carried when any member of the family went abroad at night. In the year 1709, the first glass globe for a street lamp was exhibited opposite the door of St James's Coffeeroom in London, where the inventor attended to give explanations to the people who flocked to look at the phenomenon. It was nearly a century afterwards that, in a like manner, crowds attended to see the Soho manufactory of Birmingham illuminated with gas. In 1807, Pall Mall was lighted up with it, and numbers used to travel to London for the sake of beholding so wonderful a sight: now there is probably not a town, however small, without it.

Though the capital of the empire has greatly increased in population, it has not advanced so rapidly as other towns. The secondary cities, such as Paisley, Sheffield, Leeds, Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, now containing populations ranging from fifty thousand to nearly five hundred thousand, were mere villages in the time of the Stewarts, and even at the accession of George III. had populations averaging not more than from ten to twenty thousand.

5. But while the face of the country has been changed by the building of cities, it has been no less altered by the progress of agriculture. Mr Macaulay says of the reign of Charles the Second,—“The arable and pasture lands were not supposed by the best political arithmeticians of that age to amount to much more than half the area of the kingdom. The remainder was believed to consist of moor, forest, and fen. These computations are strongly confirmed by the road books and maps of the seventeenth century. From those books and maps it is clear that many routes which now pass through an endless succession of orchards, hayfields, and

beanfields, then ran through nothing but heath, swamp, and warren. In the drawings of English landscapes made in that age for the Grand Duke Cosmo, scarce a hedgerow is to be seen, and numerous tracts, now rich with cultivation, appear as bare as Salisbury Plain. At Enfield, hardly out of sight of the smoke of the capital, was a region of five and twenty miles in circumference, which contained only three houses and scarcely any enclosed fields. Deer, as free as in an American forest, wandered there by thousands. It is to be remarked, that wild animals of large size were then far more numerous than at present. The last wild boars, indeed, which had been preserved for the royal diversion, and had been allowed to ravage the cultivated land with their tusks, had been slaughtered by the exasperated rustics during the license of the civil war. The last wolf that has roamed our island had been slain in Scotland a short time before the close of the reign of Charles the Second. But many breeds, now extinct or rare, both of quadrupeds and birds, were still common....The red deer were then as common in Gloucestershire and Hampshire as they now are among the Grampian Hills. On one occasion Queen Anne, on her way to Portsmouth, saw a herd of no less than five hundred. The wild bull with his white mane was still to be found wandering in a few of the southern forests. The badger made his dark and tortuous hole on the side of every hill where the copsewood grew thick. The wild cats were frequently heard by night wailing round the lodges of the rangers of Whittlebury and Needwood. The yellow-breasted martin was still pursued in Cranbourne Chase for his fur, reputed inferior only to that of the sable. Fen eagles, measuring more than nine feet between the extremities of the wings, preyed on fish along the coast of Norfolk. On all the downs, from the British Channel to Yorkshire, huge bustards strayed in troops of fifty or sixty, and were often hunted with greyhounds. The marshes of Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire were covered during some months of every year by immense clouds of cranes. Some of these races the progress of cultivation has extirpated. Of others the numbers are so much diminished that men crowd to gaze at a specimen as at a Bengal tiger, or a Polar bear."

The most wonderful changes which have of late been made on the surface of the country have been for the purposes of conveyance from place to place. All the more fruitful districts of England and Scotland have in the course of about

thirty years been made a complete network of railways. The old stage-coach at ten miles an hour is now rarely seen unless in remote places ; but that, too, was a wonder in its day, and the old could tell the young how people had spoken to them about travelling in the waggon at three or four miles an hour between places where there was lately a coach at ten miles an hour, and there is now the railway train at thirty miles an hour or more. In 1734, it was announced as a bold novelty that a coach would run between London and Edinburgh in nine days ; and, in 1763, there was but one in the month between the two capitals. At the same time a coach ran sometimes between Edinburgh and Glasgow twice a week, but it seems occasionally to have been interrupted by want of encouragement. The turnpike roads on which the vehicles of fifty years ago ran, and which now intersect the whole kingdom, were looked on as wonders, and very justly when compared with most of the roads a century ago, which were only fit for travellers on horseback. The coaches of the gentry could only be used in those very civilized parts of the country where there were good roads. The first which was seen in Inverness-shire arrived there about the year 1725, and the inhabitants were so astonished that they bowed very humbly to the coachman, believing him to be some great monarch or foreign chief. The 13,000 miles of railway in actual operation represent a capital of nearly £482,000,000, yielding a gross annual revenue of about £38,000,000. During the year 1865 the number of passengers on all the lines was 252,000,000.

6. Steam, besides giving us the railway trains, has largely increased the means of rapid communication on the water. Charles Lamb, who died in 1834, has recorded his recollections of the hoy or small vessel which conveyed passengers between London and Margate, a distance of sixty-five miles. It might be accomplished in one day ; but sometimes two or three were spent on the voyage. It was in 1812 that the first steam ships sailed between Glasgow and Helensburgh ; and now every shore and arm of the sea where there is any commerce, or where tourists go to admire scenery, is periodically visited by a steam vessel. In this manner the innermost solitudes of the Highlands have been made easily accessible. A steam vessel goes to America in ten days, and at the beginning of the century the smacks between London

and Edinburgh often took as long ; while the journey to India only occupies as many weeks as twenty years ago it did months. On the subject of conveyance, the post-office should not be overlooked. Under the old system, which was abolished in 1840, when Sir Rowland Hill's penny postage was established, the price of transmitting the smallest letters through the country varied from sixpence to eighteenpence. It was consequently only on important business that letters were sent by post : it was usual to wait till some one was going to the spot who might carry the letter with him. Members of parliament and certain government officers had what was called the franking privilege, and could send letters without charge. This privilege was very often taken advantage of by their friends ; and thus some of the rich could correspond for nothing, while the poor were heavily taxed. In the year 1839, the whole number of letters delivered in the United Kingdom was 76 millions ; in the year 1865, the delivery of inland letters exceeded 706 millions. During the same period the amount of money transmitted through the money-order office increased from £313,000 to over 18 millions. The number of newspapers sent by post was 43 millions, and there were 53 millions of book-parcels (including under that name unstamped newspapers). The distance over which the mails are carried by various conveyances is 150,000 miles a day, and the gross revenue of the post-office exceeds $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

The various improvements which have just been noted, and others of the same kind, are the materials that make Britain the richest nation on the globe. A writer on the precious metals calculated about twenty years ago, that there were in this country ten thousand families each possessing £500 worth of gold and silver in household articles and ornaments, and that there were a hundred and fifty thousand families each of which had a hundred pounds worth of the precious metals. He estimated that the jewellers used a million and a half worth of gold annually for ornaments, and that the whole stock of that metal in their shops at one time was worth about six millions and a half. This is evidence of luxury and abundance, but it does not represent the real riches of the nation, which is found in its cultivated ground, its cattle, sheep, and horses ; its mines of coal, iron, tin, and salt ; its buildings, its bridges, canals, harbours, and docks ; its shipping,

machinery, railways, and roads. Above all, it consists in the high skill and industry of the people. For centuries past the substantial riches of all classes have increased. Henry the Eighth had not carpets on his floor, nor could he have obtained a pair of knitted stockings or kid gloves, an umbrella, a newspaper, a steel pen, a toothbrush, or a good razor. The greatest people of his day did not enjoy the luxury of clean linen ; and his coaches without springs must have been more uncomfortable than the third class carriages of a railway train.

7. It is usual to suppose that only manufacturers and merchants have profited by the progress of the country ; but it has greatly improved the condition of all classes, not excepting the aristocracy. Whenever a country is enriched, the owners of the soil have their natural share. The possessors of the ground about Manchester and other great manufacturing cities must have received large sums for the use of it. The richest nobleman in the kingdom became so from being the owner of the land on which some of the streets of London were built. In no part of the empire has the progress in wealth been so rapid as in Scotland since the Union with England. Unless in very remote parts, the two countries are now much alike ; but until the Union had produced its anticipated fruits, a traveller who went from England to Scotland seemed to be going from a civilized to a barbarous country. When the Darien scheme was started in the reign of William and Mary, it was thought an extraordinary thing that the whole of Scotland should be able to subscribe four hundred thousand pounds, of which not much more than the half was ever paid. The railways authorized by parliament to be made in Scotland in one year (1846) cost more than twelve millions of pounds.

Until the Union took full effect, which was not for many years after the act was passed, some of the Scottish nobility were inconceivably poor. Lord Kilmarnock seems to have been driven to rebellion by sheer want, for he was glad to get a dinner from a ballad-seller in London ; and once, when he solicited the collector of his rents for money, he could only get three shillings. One night, a man who described himself as Lord Mordington, a Scottish nobleman, was found by the London police lying in rags in the street ; and on inquiry his tale proved to be true. Some of the gentry with great good sense betook themselves to small trades, and one peer became

a glover in Ayr. The rise of commerce and industry afterwards opened a wider field for them.

With the general progress of riches and comfort, it is necessary to notice the discordant fact, that there is one class—the degraded poor in the large towns—who have been but little benefited by it. Their condition is at present occupying a large share of the attention of all the better classes, and there are great hopes that by cleanliness and ventilation, by the establishment of baths, wash-houses, ragged schools, &c., it will be considerably improved. The degraded position of these miserable objects does not, however, arise from their being worse off than the worst classes were before, but from the other classes being so much better off. They remain pretty much as they were long ago, while others have taken a great start forwards.

8. In England and Wales, in the year 1760, there were no less than 880,000 persons who fed on rye: it is now computed that there are not in Great Britain so many as 10,000 rye-eaters. In the northern counties of England, at the middle of the last century, and for long after, very little wheat was consumed; in Cumberland, the principal families used only a small quantity about Christmas: almost all individuals now use wheaten bread at every season of the year. The real greatness and strength of any community depend upon the degree of comfort and prosperity enjoyed by the great bulk of the people. Mr M'Culloch, in his *Statistics of the British Empire*, speaking of the inhabitants of this country, observes that “the comforts of *all* classes have been wonderfully augmented within the last two centuries. The *labouring orders* have however been the *principal gainers*, as well by the large numbers of them who have succeeded in advancing themselves to a superior station, as by the extraordinary additional comforts that now fall to the share even of the poorest individuals.”—“Not a washerwoman,” observes Dr Johnson in the *Rambler*, “sits down to breakfast without tea from the East Indies and sugar from the West.”

Nor are these the only instances in which the luxuries of the rich have been placed within the reach of the poor. In the reign of George IV., and even later, pine-apples were only to be seen on the tables of the wealthiest classes; now they are imported in large quantities from abroad, and may

be purchased for a shilling each. The tales of Sir Walter Scott and other great novelists may now be procured for a smaller sum than used to be paid for merely reading them when they were first published. Until railways were built, a trip to the seaside was an era in a man's life; now on two days in every week excursion trains carry their thousands to Brighton or to Margate and back, for the very same sum that a traveller used to pay for going by coach twelve miles out of London; and for the amount of one day's wages a mechanic can be taken to France and back in a single day.

As regards animal food, numerous well attested facts establish that the quantity consumed increases faster than the population. In the metropolis, it has been shown that for each inhabitant there is now twice as much butcher-meat as there was a hundred years ago. Although there is still great room for improvement, human life has been made more secure, and diseases less fatal, by discoveries in medicine, and by the improvements of the cities. The plague, which desolates barbarous countries, has not been here since the reign of Charles II. Other terrible maladies have entirely disappeared. Even the victims of the cholera, the most terrible pestilence of our days, do not much increase the average mortality of a sickly year, or go beyond the quieter but very fatal devastations committed in 1846-47 by influenza. Statistics show us that the quantity of the luxuries chiefly consumed by the bulk of the people—such as tea, sugar, coffee, and tobacco—increase much more rapidly than the population. For instance, since the beginning of the century, the quantity of coffee used in the country has increased from one million of pounds to more than thirty-two millions, and during the same time that of tea has risen from twenty-four millions of pounds to nearly one hundred and two millions. The consumption of the articles of luxury among the wealthier classes increases, but not so rapidly. For example, in about thirty years the quantity of wine used had not increased above a third. The quantity of spirits drunk in this country has risen to a very large amount—an indication of the wealth of the working classes, but unfortunately also of their extravagance. Upwards of twenty-eight million gallons were consumed in 1865, of which nearly twenty-one millions were of home manufacture. About thirty-nine million pounds of tobacco are consumed yearly by the working classes alone, at a cost

of little less than nine millions sterling. It is a more gratifying indication of the wealth of the lower orders to observe the state of the Savings Banks. These institutions are now entitled to invest their money in government securities. They are the places where the humbler classes usually deposit their savings, and the amount of property thus accumulated in the United Kingdom is over forty-five millions. This sum includes more than six millions and a half in the Post-Office Savings Banks. The deposits in Scotland proportioned to the population were, in 1836, seven-pence a head, and in 1865 exceeded seventeen shillings.

From all these facts we arrive at the cheering conclusion, that the well-being of the people is slowly but materially increasing; and that while the property of the country is yearly augmented by nearly 100 millions of pounds, it is not by the accumulations in a few hands, but by the savings of the many.

The progress of Ireland during late years has been singularly rapid. The number of acres under crop rose from 5,238,000 in 1847 to 5,500,000 in 1867. The live stock, which was valued at £25,692,000 in 1849, was valued at £50,500,000 in 1867. The deposits in the joint-stock banks which in 1860 exceeded 15½ millions, were over 19 millions in 1867; while, in a single county (Cork), the rental advanced from £200,000 in 1848 to £920,000 in 1867.

9. The total area of the British islands, in round numbers, is 78,000,000 acres, of which it has been calculated that about 47,000,000 are cultivated, 15,000,000 uncultivated, and 16,000,000 incapable of cultivation. The value of the cultivated land has been estimated at £1,700,000,000.

The number of persons employed in agriculture is nearly one-third of the population; and although these have decreased as those engaged in manufactures have increased, such is the improvement in agriculture, that five families now raise the amount of food which formerly required seven. In 1866 there were 11½ millions of acres in crops, estimated at £67,500,000; the number of cattle was 8½ millions, valued at £74,957,000; of sheep, 26½ millions, worth £48,806,000; of pigs, 4 millions, at £11,583,000; making a grand total of more than 135 millions sterling. The annual income derived from lands, fisheries, mines, &c., was estimated in

1865 at £94,686,000 ; for houses, canals, and railways at £485,895,000, while the wages paid to the working-classes was probably not much under £350,000,000.

The woollen manufacture, which is one of our earliest, is, next to cotton, the most valuable. The exact amount of the produce of our looms cannot be accurately estimated ; but the quantity of wool imported has increased from 49 millions of pounds in 1843 to over 239 millions in 1866, and the value of the manufactures exported (including yarn) has increased in the same period from $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling to upwards of 25 millions. The home-grown wool has been estimated at 175 millions of pounds, valued at nearly 11 millions sterling. About twenty years ago, the annual value of the woollen manufactures was calculated at twenty-five millions. Yorkshire is the principal seat of this trade, where the population of many of the towns has more than doubled since the beginning of the century. It is also carried on in the west of England, and in Scotland at Aberdeen, Galashiels, Hawick, and Kilmar-nock.

Our cotton manufactures are comparatively of recent date. In 1766, the year preceding the introduction of the spinning-jenny, the value of the different species of goods produced was set down at £600,000. By this first improvement on the rude spinning-wheel, eight threads of the weft were spun as easily as one, and before long a girl could work 120 spindles. The jenny was succeeded by the spinning-frame, and that by the mule-jenny, which could spin a thread 240 miles long out of a single pound of cotton. By the introduction of the steam-engine as a motive-power, and by the invention of the throstle and the power-loom, the value of our cotton manufactures has increased to an extent which appears almost fabulous. In the year 1866, the quantity of raw cotton imported weighed 1377 million pounds, which were valued at $77\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. The value of the manufactures and yarn exported during the same period exceeded $74\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. At the beginning of the century, only $54\frac{1}{2}$ millions pounds of cotton were imported, and two pieces of calico were the utmost a hand-loom weaver could produce in the week ; but now the power-loom weaver, with an assistant, can produce twenty-two such pieces in the same time. The cotton manufacture employs between two

and 300 thousand persons, and gives the means of livelihood to about a million of individuals.

The linen manufacture has not increased proportionately with the cotton, by which it has been in a great measure superseded. At the period of the Union a million and a half of yards were manufactured at Dundee, and now those figures are less than the sterling value of the quantity yearly produced. The entire value of the linen manufactures of the United Kingdom may be estimated at upwards of £19,000,000, of which more than a half is exported. Dundee and Belfast are its chief seats—the one for coarse, the other for fine cloths.

Our silk manufacture dates from the fourteenth century; but in the sixteenth and seventeenth it received a great impulse from foreign and particularly French immigration. Since the removal of the prohibitive duties in 1825, the manufacture has greatly increased; it supports between 80 and 90 thousand persons, and is supposed to be worth £28,000,000 annually. Its principal seats are Spitalfields, Coventry, Macclesfield, Derby, Manchester, Paisley, and Glasgow.

The hardware manufacture includes the most heterogeneous items, from dolls' eyes, steel pens, and buttons, to the ponderous steam-engine. The raw materials of the great iron trade, which has many shapes and employs a large part of the population, are prepared at the founderies in Staffordshire, Wales, Stirlingshire, and Lanarkshire; at Sheffield and Birmingham, cutlery and the finer articles of hardware are produced; machinery, &c., is chiefly manufactured at Birmingham, Manchester, Glasgow and Dundee. About 200 tons of fine sheet-steel are yearly converted into 370 millions of pens.

The manufacture of leather goods may be estimated at 22 millions sterling. The earthenware and china manufacture yields at present between 4 and 5 millions; prior to the improvements introduced by Mr Wedgewood, in 1762, the trade was very unimportant.

The glass manufactures, since the reduction of the vexatious excise duties in 1845, have largely increased, but there are no accessible data by which to arrive at their annual value. Before that year they were estimated at $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions. A very trifling article sometimes becomes important from the

quantity used, and instances have been known of an order for five hundred pounds worth of dolls' eyes from a glass-manufacturer. Mr M'Culloch estimated the yearly produce of the paper manufactures at $1\frac{1}{2}$ million, and of hats at $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions nearly. Many departments of manufacturing industry of great value and importance have been necessarily omitted in the preceding outline; but the inquiring student desirous of further information will find his amplest curiosity gratified in a work of the author just named, entitled "Descriptive and Statistical Account of the British Empire," or in Mr Porter's interesting "Progress of the Nation."

10. The raw materials of home growth are few, but among them are two that have been the foundation of our commercial power—coal and iron. Coal is the first of our minerals, for upon it mainly depends the production of the rest. It is only within the last two hundred years that coal has advanced into general use, and now upwards of 100 million tons are consumed annually, of which 30 millions are for domestic consumption; about 10 millions are exported, and the remainder is consumed in manufactures, railways, and steam-boats. The total value at the pits is estimated at $24\frac{1}{2}$ millions. To the presence of coal-mines in their vicinity, the chief manufacturing towns of our country owe their greatness. The coal-field in England is calculated at one-twentieth of the whole surface.

The progress of our iron-works has in recent years been very remarkable. The quantity of iron-ore raised in the United Kingdom in 1865 was 10 millions of tons, of the estimated value of 4 millions sterling. The quantity of pig-iron made in the same year was almost 5 millions of tons, of the estimated value of more than 14 millions. The exports of iron and steel, wrought and unwrought, were valued at 13 millions; the amount paid in wages alone being over 2 millions a year.

Our copper mines, which began to be worked productively at a comparatively recent period, have within the last century yielded an amount of ore gradually augmenting from 7000 to 236,000 tons, of the value of $2\frac{3}{4}$ millions sterling a year. The fine copper produced from this ore amounts to 15,000 tons, of the value of 2 millions sterling.

Our tin-mines produce about 16,000 tons annually, of the

average value of more than £900,000; and our lead-mines yield upwards of 91,000 tons, of the estimated value of nearly $1\frac{1}{2}$ million sterling

Nearly 2 millions tons of salt are annually produced either from mines or saline springs, about one-half of which are exported. The value may be taken at £800,000. We have no means of estimating the consumption of lime, but it must be immense; of bricks, which would more correctly be included under manufactures, the quantity made is so large that it is not possible to form any distinct conception of it.

In 1648, the foreign commerce of England gave very little indication of its present extent, although a writer of that period says:—"England alone enjoys almost the whole manufacture and the best part of the trade of Europe." The exports were about $2\frac{1}{4}$ millions, and the imports $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. One hundred years later the exports were $12\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and the imports about 8 millions. In 1800, the exports were 35 and the imports 32 millions sterling. In 1867, the exports were 181 millions, and the imports 275 millions sterling.

In the year 1866 there were imported into the British Islands over 138 millions of pounds of tea, at a cost of 11 millions sterling; about 127 millions of pounds of coffee, of the value of about 4 millions sterling; over 11 millions of hundred-weights of sugar, worth about 12 millions sterling; 15 millions of gallons of wine, valued at above $4\frac{3}{4}$ millions sterling. There are yearly exported of cotton manufactures and yarn about $74\frac{1}{2}$ millions; of woollen manufactures and yarn, about 25 millions; of apparel, haberdashery, and millinery, $8\frac{1}{4}$ millions; of linen manufactures and yarn, 12 millions; of silk manufactures, about 2 millions; of iron and steel, above 13 millions; of hardwares and cutlery, $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions; of machinery, over $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions; of brass and copper, nearly 3 millions; of coals, above 10 millions. This vast and varied traffic employs over 27 millions of tons of shipping, British and foreign. There belonged to the United Kingdom, in 1867, nearly 41 thousand sailing and steam vessels, carrying over 7 millions of tons, and manned by 346,800 men.

The gold and silver coin of the United Kingdom is believed to be more than £75,000,000, with £38,500,000 bank-notes. Besides this authorized currency, there is an

enormous amount of bills of exchange, promissory-notes, and bankers' drafts in circulation, exceeding probably £3,600,000,000 in value. In one week of June 1868, the cheques and bills passing through the London Clearing House exceeded £81,000,000. In Scotland, the currency principally consists of one-pound notes and silver.

Notwithstanding the industry and general wealth of the country, every twenty-third person in England, it has been estimated, is a pauper, the number of those receiving permanent or temporary relief in 1867 being 931,546. The sum spent on them is nearly 7 millions a year. The condition of Ireland has so much improved during the last few years, that the number of paupers relieved in 1866 was under 38,000, or less than one in a hundred and forty, at an expense of little more than £612,000. In Scotland, the number of registered poor relieved during 1866 was about 141,260, or about the same proportion as in England, at the cost of nearly £783,000.

11. The income of the Established Church of England amounts, it is believed, to more than £5,000,000, and is derived chiefly from lands, pew-rents, tithes, offerings, and fees. The number of benefices is about 10,718, and of places of worship 14,077, with probably 3,773,000 attendants. The dissenting places of worship of all kinds amount to 20,390, with about 3,487,000 attendants. It should be remembered, however, that these figures are to a certain extent arbitrary, and that no entirely trustworthy statistical returns have yet been procured on this important subject.

The number of parishes in Ireland is 2450. The income of the Established Church has been estimated at £865,535, with about 700,000 worshippers. The Roman-catholics may be taken at $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, the Presbyterians at 530,000, and other dissenting bodies at 66,000.

The income of the Established Presbyterian Church of Scotland has been estimated at £274,620, with about 1250 congregations. The Free Church counts about 800 congregations, the United Presbyterian Synod 500, and the other religious bodies 500 more, some of them with considerable revenues and many adherents. The amount raised by the Free Church in 1866, for the support of its ministers and other religious purposes, was nearly £370,000.

The revenue of the United Kingdom in 1868 fell below 70 millions sterling. The Customs or import duties levied

on tea, sugar, coffee, wines, tobacco, &c., amounted to 22 millions. The Excise, or duties paid on home manufactures, as spirits, malt, paper, &c., yielded more than 20 millions; the Stamp Duties, between 9 and 10; the Assessed Taxes on houses, male servants, carriages, horses, dogs, &c., above 2; the Income and Property Tax, nearly 6 millions; the Post-Office, over $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling.

The Expenditure in the same year was over 72 millions. The interest on the national debt of *eight hundred millions* amounted to above 26 millions; the navy cost over 11 millions, and the army and ordnance nearly 15 millions.

The army for the same year numbered about 139,000 men, exclusive of the forces serving in the East Indies, which amounted to 65,000 men.

The effective force of the royal navy consisted of 474 ships, 414 of which were armed steam-vessels afloat. These were manned by about 51 thousand seamen and marines.

12. THE CONSTITUTION.—The supreme ruling power in this country is vested in the sovereign, being a king or queen, and in the Houses of Lords and Commons. The crown is hereditary, the next heir or heiress succeeding on the death of a sovereign; but when there have been strong reasons for it, parliament has sometimes thought fit to alter the order of succession.

It is a maxim of the constitution, that "the king never dies;" the meaning of which is, that though the individual who fills the throne may die, the several official persons who act in the name of the sovereign continue to perform their duties in the name of the successor, who is monarch from the moment when the previous sovereign expires; yet it is usual to go through the form of a coronation at some convenient period after the accession. This ceremony is now little more than a formality; but in times when the monarch had much more personal influence than he now possesses, it was held as the ratification of a solemn contract between him and his people. It was the act of inauguration to his rank and privileges, and no public measure could pass in his name until it had taken place. This principle would now be productive of much inconvenience, and it is not necessary for the protection of the public.

The sovereign is nominally the source of all public acts, whether legislative—in making laws; judicial—in deciding upon their application in particular cases; or executive—in putting the laws in force. All acts of parliament are issued in his name, but they are only binding when they are passed “by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal in parliament assembled.” All decisions in the courts of law are given in his name, but they must be administered by the proper judges; and it was decided so early as the reign of James I. of England, that it was not lawful for the king himself to sit in judgment. In the same manner, when judges have given their decisions in civil or criminal actions, these decisions are put in force in the name of the monarch; but the more important acts of this nature can only be performed by certain acknowledged and responsible officers, and in all cases the warrant of the judge is the sole authority for acting, and must be strictly obeyed.

13. The sovereign has also the right to pardon criminals; he may grant charters of incorporation, enabling communities of persons to transact business under a common name with the same freedom as individuals; he is guardian of the seashore, and of all ports and havens; and commander of all forces whether on land or sea, however raised. It belongs also to the kingly office to appear as the representative of the nation in all transactions with foreign states, and in pursuance of this authority, he commissions ambassadors to represent the empire abroad, and receives the proposals of those from other nations. It is a maxim of the constitution that the king can do no wrong; of which the practical meaning is, that he is not personally responsible for the acts done in his name. There are, however, no public measures, either carried through by others in his name, or even professedly done by himself, which are not in reality the act of some official person, who is responsible to the community. The way in which this responsibility is generally enforced is by impeachment, the Commons acting as prosecutors and the Lords as judges. It is no defence to an official person that he acts by command of the monarch, for no one is bound to hold office but on his own conditions; and thus, notwithstanding the irresponsibility of the monarch, the public have a remedy against abuses of the prerogative. Indeed, it would appear

that, in ruder ages, before this more complicated species of responsibility was resorted to, the king was considered, like every other person, amenable to the ordinary courts of law, though it may be questioned whether he would have paid much respect to their decision against him.

The most powerful practical protection, however, which the country enjoys, against the abuse of power on the part of the monarch and his servants, is in the right of the Commons to refuse the supplies, from which the army and navy, and all the officers of the crown, are paid. "The king of England," says De Lolme, "has the prerogative of commanding armies and equipping fleets; but without the concurrence of his parliament he cannot maintain them. He can bestow places and emoluments; but without his parliament he cannot pay the salaries attending on them. He can declare war; but without his parliament it is impossible for him to carry it on. In a word, the royal prerogative, destitute as it is of the power of imposing taxes, is like a vast body which cannot of itself accomplish its motions; or if you please, it is like a ship completely equipped, but from which the parliament can at pleasure draw off the water, and leave it aground, and also set it afloat again by granting subsidies."

The sovereign is intrusted with the power of calling, assembling, proroguing, and dissolving parliament. It is a branch of the royal prerogative, and no parliament can be constitutionally convened by its own authority, or by any authority except that of the sovereign. On occasions of emergency, however, it has been usual for the parliament to convene or meet of its own accord, and it did so at the period of the Revolution of 1668.

The sovereign is further regarded by the constitution as the fountain of honour, of office, and of privilege; "and this," says Blackstone, "in a different sense from that wherein he is styled the fountain of justice; for here he is really the parent of them. And, therefore, all degrees of nobility, of knighthood, and other titles, are received by immediate grant from the crown; either expressed in writing, by writs, or letters patent, as in the creation of peers and baronets, or by corporeal investiture, as in the creation of a simple knight."

14. *The House of Lords* consists of two bodies which were originally distinct,—the lords spiritual and the lords temporal. The former comprehend twenty-six prelates belonging to the church of England, and four, an archbishop and three bishops, who represent, in yearly rotation, the ecclesiastical establishment of Ireland. Though these lords spiritual are, in the eye of the law, a distinct estate from the lords temporal, and are so distinguished in most of our acts of parliament, yet, in practice, they are usually blended together under one denomination: they intermix in their votes, and the majority of the united body is held to be the voice of the two estates.

The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm, including dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, who, in England, are hereditary members of the legislature; together with sixteen elected peers who represent the nobility of Scotland, and twenty-eight who represent that of Ireland. The number of temporal lords is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown; and in the reign of Queen Anne the regal authority was exercised in creating no fewer than twelve on one occasion.

The House of Lords is considered the highest law court in the land. In one form or other it may review the legal judgments of all the higher courts of law and equity, except the Court of Justiciary in Scotland. It is not now, however, considered that the peers themselves are the judges; for they have not, probably, in any case, since the celebrated Douglas cause, acted in that capacity. They are the mere medium of obtaining the best legal opinion. In cases from the courts of England, they obtain the assistance of the judges, who attend personally; in those from Scotland, they obtain written opinions; and judgment is suggested and virtually pronounced, by some one of the eminent lawyers who are members of the house,—generally by the Lord Chancellor. When a peer is charged with a capital crime, the constitution provides that he shall be only tried by his equals, and for this purpose the peers form themselves into a court, to which the king appoints a special president, who is called the Lord High Steward.

15. *The Third Estate*, as it is commonly called, consists of the Commons, who are represented in parliament by a certain

number of their own order. This number amounts to 658, of whom 500 are returned by England, 53 by Scotland, and 105 by Ireland. By the Reform Bills introduced by the Disraeli ministry it is proposed to increase this number by adding to the members returned for Scotland. The members of the House of Commons are divided into the representatives of counties, those of towns and those of the universities of England and Ireland, which return two members each, or six in all. In England, the right of voting in boroughs is conferred upon all rated householders, and in counties to freeholders and all occupying houses of £12 yearly rental. In Scotland, tenants paying poor-rates in boroughs are entitled to vote: the county franchise is £14. In Ireland, the borough franchise is £4, and in counties £12. It is an ancient privilege of the Commons house of parliament to insist that all pecuniary grants and aids or proposals to tax the people shall begin with them, and receive their sanction, before they can be taken into consideration by the other house of parliament. When a money-bill, as such a bill is termed, is altered by the Lords, the Commons refuse to take it into consideration in any form, and the Speaker, who is the custodian of their privileges, usually throws it over the table. It is not a long time since a bill for the protection of game was thus cast aside, because the Lords had altered the amount of the penalties which, being forfeited to the Exchequer, were considered as of the nature of supplies. When the bill for the abolition of the paper-duty was rejected by the Peers in 1860, the House of Commons protested against the act, and reasserted their sole right of taxation by incorporating the bill in the general financial measure of the following year, which passed unopposed.

Besides the agreement of both houses of parliament, no bill can be invested with the power of law until it has received the royal assent.

In regard to the intervals when the parliament does not sit, it is either *adjourned*, *prorogued*, or *dissolved*.

Adjournment is, strictly speaking, nothing more than the continuance of parliament from one day to another,—an act which is performed by the majority of each House every day they meet for business, and which is sometimes extended for two or three weeks at Christmas or Easter.

A *Prorogation* is the continuance of parliament from one session to another, which is done by the royal authority, expressed either by the lord chancellor in the sovereign's presence, or by commission from the crown, or sometimes by proclamation. Both Houses are necessarily prorogued at the same time; and it seems now to be generally held that a prorogation must be expressly made, in order to determine the session of parliament, although formerly it was understood, that as soon as the king gave his royal assent to the bills passed by the other branches of the legislature, their sitting terminated as a matter of course. If, at the time of an actual rebellion or imminent danger of invasion, the parliament shall be prorogued or adjourned, the king is empowered to call them together by proclamation, with fourteen days' notice of the time appointed for their re-assembling.

Parliament may be *dissolved* in one of three ways: *First*, by the will of the monarch, expressed either in person or by representatives; for as he has the sole right of convening parliament, so also it is a branch of the royal prerogative that he may, whenever he pleases, prorogue the same for a time, or put a final period to its existence. In the *second* place, parliament may be dissolved by the demise of the crown. *Thirdly*, a dissolution may take place from the mere expiry of the term during which a parliament can legally subsist, which is seven years.

16. There are three great features which materially characterize the administration of justice in Great Britain,—the power of juries, the writ of *habeas corpus*, and the independence of the judges. The origin of jury trial, like that of the House of Commons, is involved in uncertainty. Some suppose that jurymen were originally mere witnesses, who attended the court of the feudal superior, and gave testimony as to the guilt or innocence of a vassal. Others hold that the system sprung from the practice of releasing any accused person for whose good conduct a certain number of neighbours made themselves responsible. The practice was in full operation at the granting of Magna Charta, and its continuance is there provided for, as may be seen on turning to what has been said of that measure in our eleventh chapter. It lived through many periods of difficulty and danger, proving, as circumstances alternated, a protection from the power of the crown, and a refuge from popular violence. It is now in practice in every portion of the empire, and is employed in trial of all important offences, and the ascertainment of

matters of fact connected with civil rights. Without descending to minute particulars, it may be said that the general object of the system is to give to every man the benefit of being judged by a certain number of unprofessional persons, generally his equals in point of property and position, who are chosen in such a manner that no one can so well know on whom the choice may be fixed, as to be able to bribe or influence them beforehand. The object of the writ of *habeas corpus* is to prevent any man from being kept in confinement, unless he has been publicly sentenced by a lawful court; or be merely retained in custody for trial at an early period. There is a similar form in Scotland, known by the expression "running letters." Before the Revolution, considerable corruption was shown on the bench in all parts of the island, the judges being the mere servants of the monarch, by whom they might be removed at pleasure. During the reign of William III., it was enacted that the commissions of judges should not be revocable, except on an address from both houses of parliament; and that their salaries should be permanent. Still, however, the judges were thus secured only against the king who appointed them. Their commissions ceased on his death; and though they were independent of the reigning monarch, they were still subject to such temptations as might be held out by the next heir. On the recommendation of George III. this defect was remedied at his accession, and the judges were rendered permanently independent.

The principal courts of justice in the country have descended to us from a remote antiquity, and have acquired their authority by acquiescence. Others are of late origin. In England, the tribunals which decide on civil rights are divided into *common-law* courts and *equity* courts. The former were in the practice of following the strict rules of the law, under the impression that they were not entitled to alter it, even in cases where obedience to it would create injustice. In such instances, the courts of equity, generally exercising direct authority from the crown, interfered. Thus, the king's chancellor or chaplain used to receive the complaints of persons who felt themselves injured by the common law, and from this practice arose the great power of the lord chancellor as a judge in equity. The courts of equity, however, which had their origin in such circumstances, are, at the present day, bound by precedents and acts of parliament; and the only difference between them and the common law courts is, that the one can administer justice

in one description of case, and the other in another. The principal courts of common law in England are the King's (or Queen's) Bench, the Common Pleas, and the Exchequer. The Common Pleas was originally the proper court for deciding questions of civil right between one subject and another. The Court of King's Bench was confined to actions of a criminal nature, or such as were raised against persons in the custody of the marshal of the court for some offence; while the Court of Exchequer decided in cases connected with the collection of the royal revenue. These two latter courts extended their jurisdiction to ordinary actions by means of what are termed "fictions" or presumptions of law. Thus, when one man prosecuted another in the Court of King's Bench, he had to state that the latter was in the custody of the marshal of the court for some transgression; and the court being thus called on to interfere, compelled the parties to obey its decision as to the question between them. By an act of William the Fourth's reign, however, the system of fictions is abolished, and the forms of actions in the courts of law made uniform. The decisions of these courts may be reviewed in the Court of Exchequer chamber, whence an appeal lies to the House of Lords. In the country, civil cases are tried by jury before the courts of assize, consisting of various judges of the law courts, whose sessions are held in some county towns twice, and in others thrice a-year. Of the courts of equity, the chief is the Chancery, in which there are five judges holding separate courts: the lord chancellor, the master of the rolls, and three vice-chancellors. The Court of Exchequer likewise acts as a court of equity. Besides those now mentioned, which are of old standing, there are also Courts of Bankruptcy for the metropolis and for seven populous districts in the rest of the country. There is a Court of Admiralty for judging in contracts made on the high seas; the Ecclesiastical Courts take cognizance of questions relating to church doctrine and discipline; and for the speedier and cheaper recovery of small debts and the settlement of trivial law-suits, County Courts have been established all over England. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council receives appeals from the Ecclesiastical, Colonial, and Admiralty Courts. Within the last few years, certain functions of the ecclesiastical courts have been transferred to the new court of Probate and of Divorce and Matrimonial Causes.

The administration of civil justice in Scotland differs con-

siderably from the method pursued in England. The distinction between law and equity is unknown. In all cases the Court of Session is the supreme tribunal, subject to appeal to the House of Lords. In each county there is a sheriff, who has under him one or more substitutes. In Ireland, the civil tribunals resemble those of England; but a considerable portion of the more unimportant business is decided in courts of general session, held four times in the year.

17. The highest criminal tribunal in England, with the exception of the House of Lords, is the Court of Queen's (or King's) Bench. It has jurisdiction in all offences from the highest to the lowest, except where it is expressly excluded by statute, and proceedings before inferior courts may be removed to it. On the various circuits, criminal courts, or courts of oyer and terminer, and jail delivery, are held along with the courts of assize; and for the trial of offences within a certain space round London, a tribunal has been erected, termed "The Central Criminal Court." The justices of peace, at their several sessions, try minor offences. When a presumed criminal is apprehended on the warrant of a magistrate, he must either be committed to jail for safe custody until trial, or released on bail,—that is, on his finding security to appear on the occasion of the trial. Offences of a higher class are not bailable, except by the judges of the King's Bench; and it may be stated as a general rule, that crimes which may be capitally punished are of this class. There are two ways of bringing a criminal to trial,—by a finding of a grand jury, in which twelve at least have agreed, or by information. No man can be tried for a capital crime, unless by the former method. The jury, who have finally to decide the question of guilt or innocence, consists of twelve persons, and there can be no conviction unless they are unanimous.

In Scotland the supreme criminal court is the High Court of Justiciary, which sits at Edinburgh. While in England private crimes are in general prosecuted by the parties interested, this practice, though not inconsistent with the law of Scotland, is seldom adopted; prosecutions being raised in the name of the crown by the lord-advocate. The practice of bail is nearly similar to that in England. There is no grand jury, and the ordinary jury consists of fifteen individuals, of whom a majority decides either on guilt or acquittal. The administration of criminal justice in Ireland follows the English system.

EXERCISES.

1. What things now to be seen may have existed when the Romans were here? What did the Saxons leave? What sort of buildings were raised at first after the Normans came?

2. What sort of private buildings were raised after the wars of the Roses? Of what age are there more numerous mansions than those of the Tudor age? Where were houses fortified to a late period? Describe generally the effect of the progress of civilisation on the domestic architecture of the country.

3. What do our towns possess now which they did not formerly possess? Describe the dangers that generally beset people going through the streets of London of old. Mention circumstances which show the extent of robbery and murder in former days.

4. What means are there for people finding their way in towns which did not formerly exist? Describe the way in which tradesmen tried to make their shops conspicuous. When were improvements made, and what did they consist in? Mention circumstances showing the progress made in lighting the streets.

5. In what has the face of the country been altered besides buildings? Give a general account of what Mr Macaulay says about the difference of its present and past appearance. What is the nature of the railway system? What methods of conveyance were used formerly? Give an account of the railway traffic.

6. Describe the nature of the change made by steam on sea voyages. What changes have been lately made in the post-office system? What was the franking privilege? What number of letters passes yearly through the post-office? What sum of money passes through the money-order office? What estimates have been made of the quantity of the precious metals in private use? In what does the real wealth of the country consist?

7. What classes have profited by the progress of wealth? What has been the effect of the Union on Scotland? What was the state of the Scottish nobility? Mention some exceptions to the general progress. State some things which show that the lower class was formerly more numerous than at present.

8. What circumstances show improvement in the working classes? How do the past and the present consumption of animal food stand to each other? State some particulars as to the consumption of articles by the aristocracy and the working classes? What amount per head is deposited in the savings banks?

9. Mention the area of the British islands, and the amount cultivated and uncultivated. Give an account of the woollen manufacture. Describe the progress of the cotton manufacture. Give some account of the following manufactures,—1st linen, 2d silk, 3d hardware, 4th leather, 5th glass.

10. What are the principal raw materials produced in this country? To which of them do our manufactures chiefly owe their rise? Mention two metals besides iron worked in this country. Mention some facts which show the great increase in commerce. What does the money of the country consist in? What is the proportion of paupers to the population of England?

11. Give some account of the wealth of the religious bodies of England and the numbers attached to them. Do the same as to Ireland: And as to Scotland. What is the amount of the revenue of the empire? What are the chief sources of it? What are the chief charges on it?

12. What is the nature of the English crown or sovereignty? Give a constitutional maxim, and explain its practical working. What is the nature of the coronation? What things are done in the name of the sovereign?

13. What rights does the sovereign possess? State a constitutional maxim as to his acts, and describe its practical effect. How is the country protected by official responsibility? What is the main protection of the people from unconstitutional acts? What are the sovereign's functions as to parliament? How is the sovereign the fountain of power?

14. Describe the difference between peers spiritual and temporal. How does it operate? Who are the temporal peers? In what way does the House of Lords act as a court of law?

15. How are the members of the House of Commons classified? Describe an ancient privilege of the commons, and the way in which it was used. What is an adjournment of the house? What is a prorogation? How is parliament dissolved?

16. What three great features characterize the administration of justice in Britain? Give an account of jury trial. How are the judges made independent? How are the English courts for administering civil justice divided? Give an account of them. How is civil justice administered in Scotland and Ireland?

17. What is the court of highest criminal jurisdiction in England? What other courts are held for the trial of offences? What is the method of proceeding? How does the system of criminal justice in Scotland differ from that in England?

CHAPTER XLI.

THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

1. It was of old a boastful expression of the Spaniards that on their king's dominions the sun never set. This may be truly said of the dominions of the British crown. When sinking from our view in the western ocean, the orb of day is rising on our colonies in the new world; and as the settler in Australia or the wearied soldier on the parched plains of India watches his receding rays, he may picture them glancing brightly on the dewy hills of his native home. Extensive as are the lands swayed by the British sceptre, it is rarely, in comparison with the acquisitions of other states, that they have been gained to satisfy the mere lust of conquest. Even in that fabled soil of "barbaric wealth," great as were the crimes that stained the earlier days of English weakness and insecurity, so soon as those perilous moments were past, the native of Hindostan for the first time learnt the blessings of good government, first cultivated his patch of ground in tranquillity, and first enjoyed the privileges of impartial law. It is true that the best efforts have not enabled us to colonize barbarian countries without some hardships to the natives. Even where there is neither slaughter nor plunder, the very presence of the industrious civilized man, ploughing and building, renders the land no longer fit for the idle savage who feeds on the roots and wild animals of the wilderness.

Thus, unfortunately, in the vast territory of Australia, as well as in other places, the natives have fallen victims to the evils of civilisation, or have wandered into unexplored wilds. But they were few in number, and to compensate for this evil, we have the thousands who are there living by improvement and industry, and reaping a legitimate harvest from those fertile coasts, along the whole extent of which new settlements are yearly bursting into existence, combining all the activity of youth with the steadiness of purpose of mature age. From a mere speck of land off the coast of China, we may hope that ere long the example of a higher state of civilisation, of a purer morality, and of a holier religion, will exercise its influence upon that mighty empire, which had for ages been a forbidden country to the people of the West. In Borneo the standard of European civilisation has been raised by the chivalrous enterprise of a single individual, and rivers once the retreat and stronghold of the pirate, may ere long be the great arteries of wealth and peaceful commerce. Occupying nearly the same position in the southern hemisphere as Britain does in the northern, the islands of New Zealand, no longer the sole abode of men whose chief delight was war, and who celebrated their victories by devouring the bodies of their victims, welcome a host of emigrants to their now hospitable shores, where a wider field of exertion is opened to them than they can find at home, and where they seek to revive the nobler parts of long-tried institutions. The natives, once far more terrible than the burning volcano which towers high above their heads, are gradually softening down, and from the admixture of the races a nation may possibly arise far superior in energy and endurance to any that the world has ever seen.

2. AMERICA.—Towards the close of the fifteenth century, a new route had been opened to India, and another continent had offered its treasures to the adventurous sons of Europe. The Spaniards and the Portuguese were the first to avail themselves of this discovery; but the British were not left far behind. A small squadron sailing from Bristol in the reign of Henry the Seventh was the earliest to catch a glimpse of the coast of North America; but the British did little before 1588 towards the foundation of their colonial dominion. In the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Walter Raleigh formed a settlement, to which he gave the name Virginia, in honour of his sovereign. Under the patronage of James I. two companies

were formed, one consisting of London merchants, the other of traders of Plymouth and other seaports, to colonize all the known parts of North America. This territory was divided into two equal portions; that which retained the name of Virginia fell to the London company, the other was called New England. The former prospered to such a degree that in 1619 a general assembly of the inhabitants was convened, to which eleven towns sent representatives, and the constitutional forms of the mother-country were adopted.

Massachusetts was first settled by a small body of presbyterians, who sought freedom of worship on those distant shores, where six years afterwards they founded the city of Boston. The disordered state of England drove great numbers of the oppressed puritans across the Atlantic; then came crowds of Roman-catholics; and finally the outbreak of the civil war impelled many lovers of peace and order to seek those blessings beyond the western main. These states gradually grew in wealth and strength, and when they were able to secure themselves from foreign enemies, they began to feel the burden of the commercial and other restrictions imposed upon them by the home government. Their endeavours to be placed on a more favourable footing ended, as we have seen, in a contest which eventually led to the dismemberment of the colonies, and the establishment of their independence as the United States of North America.

The English colonies in the West Indies did not begin to flourish until the early part of the seventeenth century. In 1625, private merchants established factories in Barbadoes and Saint Christopher's; but they were of little importance until the sugar-cane, which had been transplanted from Brazil in 1641, began to be successfully cultivated. The conquest of Jamaica, during the protectorate of Cromwell, opened a new source of wealth to the commerce and enterprise of Great Britain.

The West Indian Islands, with Honduras and British Guiana, the oldest of our colonies, are nearly 170,000 square miles in extent, and contain a population of about 900,000 inhabitants. Their exports to the value of about five millions of pounds consist chiefly of sugar, coffee, tobacco, rum, cotton, mahogany, logwood, spices, fruits, dyes, and drugs. They purchase from the mother-country manufactured cottons, linens, woollens, clothing, &c., to the amount of about two millions. Jamaica, the largest of the West

Indian Islands, contains a population of nearly 380,000, of whom only 30,000 are whites, the rest being negroes, who were almost all slaves until emancipated in 1838 under an act of parliament that had been passed in 1833. Since that time those colonies have continued to prosper, their exports increasing every year. Jamaica was the only exception, where from various causes there existed much discontent, which culminated in an insurrection of the negroes at Morant Bay in August 1865. The riot, for it was really little more, was quickly suppressed, but with such severity and lawlessness, that Mr Eyre, the governor, was recalled, a royal commission was sent out to investigate the matter, and by the voluntary act of the legislature, the constitution was surrendered to the crown, so that the island has ceased to enjoy the privilege of self-government.

Several attempts were made in England in 1867 and 1868 to bring Governor Eyre to trial for alleged illegalities committed by him or his agents while putting down the insurrection; but they all failed, the grand-jurors apparently holding that he was not actuated by malice, and that if he committed errors, he had been sufficiently punished by deprivation of office. The prosecutions were of great importance in a constitutional light, as giving the Lord Chief Justice an opportunity of affirming authoritatively that martial law was not recognised by the English constitution, and was applicable only to soldiers actually under arms and in the field, according to the terms of the Mutiny Act.

That vast extent of territory, the United States, originally colonized by English settlers, having secured its independence in 1782, the British possessions on the continent of America lie with a very trifling exception to the north of the river St Lawrence and the great chain of lakes to the straits of San Juan. Extending into regions covered with perpetual ice and snow, and traversed only by the wandering Esquimaux, or the scarcely less savage trappers of the Hudson's Bay Company, much of this territory produces little else than hides and furs: from the more genial portions we derive timber, wheat, ashes, fish, turpentine, and other articles. These colonies, including Newfoundland, &c., have an area of about 3,600,000 square miles, with a population of about 4 millions, of whom the majority are of British origin; in Lower

Canada alone the *habitans*, the descendants of the original French settlers, being the more numerous. The people of both provinces are as loyal as any of the Queen's subjects. They received the Prince of Wales with unbounded enthusiasm; they rose to a man when there was a probability of war with the United States in 1861, and quickly drove back the Fenians who had made an inroad in 1866. The next year Canada and the maritime provinces were united into a confederation under one government; but as yet the various interests of the colonies do not appear to amalgamate. The value of their exports exceeds $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and their purchases from the home country in manufactured goods (woollens, cottons, linens, hardware, soap, and candles, earthenware, clothing, &c.) amount to between 4 and 5 millions. The discovery of gold along the course of the Fraser river and in Vancouver's Island has led to such a rapid influx of settlers that a new colony has been formed between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific under the title of British Columbia.

3. AFRICA.—The chief dependencies of Great Britain in Africa include Sierra Leone, Cape Coast Castle, the possessions on the Gambia, Cape Colony, Natal, and British Caffraria, on the mainland, with the Islands of Ascension and St Helena in the Atlantic, and the Mauritius in the Indian Ocean. They embrace an area of nearly 250,000 square miles, and contain about 1,500,000 inhabitants. The most important of these is Cape Colony, which was taken from the Dutch in 1806. Its imports in British and Irish produce and manufactures amount to about 2 millions sterling and it exports to the mother country wool, wine, hides, ivory, and aloes. From our settlements on the western coast of Africa we receive gold-dust, palm-oil, ivory, teak and dye-woods, wax, hides, &c., and we send them cottons, hardware, and the other manufactures of Britain. The Mauritius, named by the Dutch discoverers after their Prince Maurice, is a small island in the Indian Ocean, with an area of 700 square miles, and a population of about 240,000. It is, however, important from the richness of its soil, and from its position as a place to protect and supply vessels on that vast ocean which stretches from Africa to Australia. It was a possession of the French, and so valuable to them,

that in the war with France British shipping, estimated at 2½ millions sterling, is said to have been captured by the Mauritian privateers. It was taken by Britain in 1810. Its exports are chiefly sugar.

4. ASIA.—Our empire in the East Indies dates from the charter granted in 1600 by Queen Elizabeth to a company of London merchants who received permission in 1611 from the government of Delhi to establish factories at Surat, Cambay, and other places. About 1648, their first settlement at Madras was formed, and by the marriage of Charles II. with the Princess Catherine of Portugal, they obtained the valuable position of Bombay on the western coast of the peninsula. Not long prior to this, the company, in addition to their extensive judicial authority, were further empowered to make peace or war with any people not being Christians. In 1664 took place their first collision with a native power, they having repelled an attack upon Surat by Sevajee, the founder of the Mahratta empire. Fort-William, at Calcutta, was erected in 1699. Immediately prior to this a new East India Company had been incorporated; but after great dissensions between the two bodies, in 1708 they were blended into one.

In the seventeenth century the minister Colbert directed the attention of the French to commerce and maritime speculation; and in the East Indies their possessions were superior to those of the English. When what is called the *Succession War* broke out in Europe, on the death of A. D. } Charles VI. of Germany, Madras was taken by La-
1746. } bourdonnais, but restored at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, had formed a plan for the aggrandizement of France, in the pursuit of which he violently interfered in the politics of the Deccan. To create a diversion in favour of the Nabob of the Carnatic, who was struggling for independence, the celebrated Clive, then only a captain in the company's army, attacked and captured Arcot, whence his little band of 500 men afterwards repelled the numerous hosts of the French party.

In the mean time the factory at Calcutta was rapidly increasing in importance, so as to provoke the jealousy of the native princes. In 1756, Surajah Dowlah, the subahdar of

Bengal, suddenly invested Calcutta with 70,000 men and 400 elephants. Resistance was impossible; the governor and inhabitants fled to the shipping, but through some mismanagement 200 were left behind, who held out for a time. The place was at last taken by storm, and the prisoners, 146 in number, were thrust into a room not 20 feet square, during an intensely hot night in June. From this horrible dungeon, named the *Black Hole*, only twenty-four came out alive in the morning. As soon as the news of this catastrophe reached Madras, Clive was sent with 2400 men to recover Calcutta, in which he not only succeeded, but compelled the subahdar to sue for peace. In 1757, Clive with 3000 men defeated 70,000 of the enemy at Plassey, while Meer Jaffier, the new nabob of Bengal, agreed to enlarge the company's territories, and to pay a sum of nearly three millions sterling.

In the Carnatic, Count Lally, an Irish officer in the French service, reduced Cuddalore and Fort St David, but failed in his attack on Madras. Sir Eyre Coote soon retrieved these losses, and in the beginning of 1761 the power of the French was utterly destroyed by the reduction of Pondicherry. The English had no longer any European rival in the Indian peninsula. In 1765, the Mogul conferred on them the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and acknowledged their sovereignty over certain districts which they had conquered. They were the virtual rulers of the Carnatic; and the Northern Circars had been granted to them by the Nizam on condition of protection.

5. In 1773, the charter of the company was modified, and a governor-general appointed in the person of Warren Hastings, who found the affairs of India greatly embarrassed, and a general confederacy formed against the British. His government was characterized by an able but unscrupulous policy, which greatly extended the territories of the company. Bengal was released from its tributary dependence on the Mogul; the Nabob of Oude was compelled to furnish extraordinary supplies of money; and the provinces of Bombay and Madras increased in extent. His most formidable antagonist was Hyder Ali, a skilful soldier, who had risen from obscurity to be Sultan of Mysore. In 1780, Hyder with an army of 90,000 men burst into the Carnatic, ravaging everything before him; and in three weeks the British empire in Southern India was brought to the verge of ruin. At length the sultan's victorious progress was arrested by Sir E. Coote at the head of

7000 men; a month later, he experienced a second defeat, and his fleet was destroyed by Sir E. Hughes. After Hyder's death, in 1782, his son Tippoo Saib was glad to conclude a peace.

Warren Hastings returned home only to be impeached, and
 A. D. } Cornwallis was appointed his successor. A petty dif-
 1786. } ference between Tippoo Saib and the Rajah of Travancore, an ally of the British, soon rekindled the flames of war.
 A. D. } The strong fortress of Bangalore was taken, and Serin-
 1790. } gapatam threatened, for the preservation of which the sultan agreed to give up half his dominions to the English; to pay about four millions sterling for the expenses of the contest, and to surrender his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.

Tippoo, taking advantage of the progress of events in Europe, negotiated with the French Directory for support, and strengthened himself by alliances among the neighbouring princes. To anticipate his treacherous designs, the governor-general, Lord Mornington, afterwards Marquis Wellesley, commenced hostilities, which were speedily terminated by the capture of Seringapatam and the death of the sultan, whose kingdom was divided among the English and their native allies.

The jealousy of the Mahrattas, then the most formidable remaining power in Hindostan, led to another war of conquest, and prevented the company from pursuing those commercial objects which were always deemed of paramount importance. In 1803, Scindia, the rajah, was offended by an alliance formed by the British with the Peishwa of Poonah. General Lake immediately took the field in the north, where he was opposed by Perron, a French officer in the Mahratta service. He rapidly overran the northern provinces, and took possession of Delhi and the person of the Mógul, who was tributary to Scindia. In the south, operations were conducted very successfully by Major-general Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington), who at the great battle of Assaye, with a force of 14,000 men, totally routed 60,000 of the enemy. The peace which ensued gave the victors extensive territories in Central Hindostan, including Delhi and Agra, with the custody of the Mogul emperor, who died a British pensioner in 1807. Holkar, another Mahratta sovereign, endeavoured to recover his territories, and made a bold but unsuccessful attempt at Delhi.

No formidable rival now remained in India to prevent the commercial prosperity of the British, although the peace of the peninsula was not unbroken. In 1816, the Gorkhas, a warlike people of the Himalaya, were subdued, and a large mountain-tract was annexed to the company's territory. Somewhat later the Pindarees, a nation of freebooters, the
 A.D. }
 1818. } terror of India, were defeated and utterly dispersed. The war provoked by the Burmese government, which has already been mentioned, ended in a treaty, by which
 A.D. }
 1826. } Aracan and other provinces on the east side of the Bay of Bengal were added to British India. In the same year an army of 20,000 men under Lord Combermere was sent against the usurping Rajah of Bhurtpore. His fortress, reputed to be the strongest in India, was taken by assault, and the rightful heir reinstated in his authority.

6. The designs and influence of Russia in Central Asia had long been viewed with suspicion, and it was imagined that the best means of defence would be to place a sovereign on the throne of Cabul, who, being indebted to the British for his elevation, would be their grateful ally, and would effectually shut out Persian and Russian influence from the countries bordering on the Indus, at the same time saving us the expense and hazard of the military occupation of those countries. Affghanistan occupies in Asia a somewhat similar position to that of Switzerland in Europe. It seems placed by nature as a neutral district between India and Persia, as the Birman Empire between India and China. Its inhabitants, an active and warlike race, are thinly scattered over the country.

In 1839, the British government revived the claims of the dethroned Shah Soojah, and restored him to power, at the risk of rendering the sovereign odious to his subjects. A civil war was the immediate consequence, and a fierce struggle ensued between Dost Mohammed and the Shah. When England imposed a king on Affghanistan, she also contracted the obligation of supporting him. Her troops had taken possession of the fortresses of the country; but they were widely scattered, and thus weakened in presence of an active enemy impatient of a foreign yoke. After many vicissitudes, the Affghans, emboldened by partial success and the helplessness of their enemies, assailed them in the very capital. During the last two months of 1841, the Anglo-Indian army, under General Elphinstone, was cooped up in Cabul and its vicinity, and Major Macnaghten, the envoy and minister, was basely

assassinated by Akbar Khan at a conference with the insurgent chiefs. The leaders of the army lost all confidence in themselves and their men, and were glad to conclude a treaty guaranteeing their safe retreat to Jellalabad, of which the heroic Sale was governor. On the 6th of January 1842, they quitted their intrenched camp, but had scarcely got beyond the lines when they were attacked by overwhelming numbers. Bravely they cut their way through the hostile ranks, but in the difficult pass of the Koord, about twelve miles from the capital, the regiments became disorganized. In want of food and ammunition, encumbered with wounded, sometimes buried in the deep snows that cover the mountain-passes in the winter, an army that a few days before counted nearly 5000 fighting men, with 12,000 camp followers, was completely destroyed, Dr Brydon, a surgeon, alone escaping to Jellalabad to tell the tale of treachery and horror.

It would be difficult to describe the effect produced in England by the news of this disaster. At first it was treated as a fable, but when confirmed, there was but one cry for vengeance and the rescue of the miserable captives, who it was hoped might still survive. As soon as the season permitted, two strong armies advanced simultaneously from Jellalabad and Candahar under Generals Pollock and Nott, and effected their junction at Cabul notwithstanding the utmost exertions of the enemy to arrest their march. The captive women and a few wounded prisoners were recovered, the bazaar of Cabul with the fortifications of Ghiznee and other strong places were destroyed, and the army returned in triumph to India (1842).

7. Scinde had been for a number of years tributary and subject to the British government; but this subjection was rather nominal than real, as the Ameers or chiefs enjoyed their independence, and remained in the undisturbed possession of their territories. During the Affghan war Scinde rose into new importance from its being necessary to pass through the country, and it was then perceived that the free navigation of the Indus would facilitate the passage of our troops, and was capable of affording a safe, easy, and commodious channel of communication with the north-western provinces of India. The necessity that the British empire should hold the military command of the river in order to prevent a foreign power from using it for the invasion of our possessions, and the treacherous behaviour of the Ameers at the commencement of the Affghan war, induced Lord Ellenborough, the governor-gen-

eral, to attempt the acquisition of the lands contiguous to the Indus, instead of the annual tribute hitherto paid. The Ameers protracted the negotiations merely to gain time for collecting troops. On the 12th of February 1843, the treaty was signed, and on the 15th, the British residency at Hyderabad was attacked by 8000 men with six guns. Major Outram, the diplomatic agent, had for his defence only 100 men. For four hours this gallant little band kept their numerous enemies at bay, and, their ammunition being then nearly exhausted, made an orderly retreat to the steam-boats, which awaited them on the Indus, and effected a junction with Sir Charles Napier at Hala. In this spirited defence a few soldiers were lost; but on the side of the enemy ninety were killed and many more wounded. Napier's army amounted only to 2700 men, and the opposing force was estimated at ten times that number; still, without hesitation, he marched against the enemy, and on the 17th arrived in view of their camp at Meeanee, which contained 22,000 men. He began the action immediately, although his troops were fatigued by a long march, and after three hours of a most desperate and resolute contest the Beloochees fled, leaving the whole of their guns, ammunition, standards, stores, and treasure to the victors. About 1000 were left dead on the field, and 4000 were made prisoners. The next day, the Ameers came into the British camp, and unconditionally gave themselves up as prisoners of war. Three days later, the conquerors entered Hyderabad, where treasure to the amount of one million sterling was found. But another decisive action was required for the subjugation of the country. The Ameers who were still at large collected their forces, and on the 24th of March a battle was fought at Dubba attended with great slaughter. The enemy brought 20,000 men into the field, who contended fiercely, but were unable to withstand the discipline, science, and courage of the British soldiers.

8. In the adjacent kingdom of the Punjaub, events have been still more remarkable than in Scinde. About seventy years ago, the Sikh chiefs obtained possession of this country, and as they acknowledged no sovereign, each was ambitious of personal aggrandizement. Of these Maha Sing was the most conspicuous for valour and conduct. Rallying a powerful party round him, he soon acquired an ascendancy in the Punjaub, and bequeathed it to his son in 1792. Although Maha was only twenty-seven at his death, he had so firmly

consolidated his power that the right of Runjeet Sing, then a boy in his twelfth year, to succeed him, was not disputed. The superior capacity of the child was early displayed, and at seventeen he assumed the direction of affairs. By crafty policy he gradually extended his dominion; one by one the independent chiefs succumbed, and he succeeded in erecting the Punjaub into a noble and wealthy kingdom. He had early formed an alliance with the British government, and that alliance he was never tempted to break. He died in 1839, when Lahore was in a most flourishing state, containing 50,000 square miles of the richest territory in India, finely watered by the five rivers from which the name *Punjab* is derived, and inhabited by $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions of souls. The standing army was estimated at 70,000 men, disciplined on the British model, officered by Europeans, and well furnished with cavalry and artillery. The yearly revenue was $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, and the Maharajah's treasury contained at his death more than ten millions sterling. The peerless diamond, "the mountain of light," which once adorned the throne of Delhi, but which Runjeet obtained by force from Shah Soojah, and constantly wore on his arm, was valued at three millions sterling. It was as large as an egg, and of incomparable purity and lustre. It is now in England, and forms one of the crown jewels.

The most atrocious scenes of treachery and murder occurred after the death of Runjeet's successor, each chief striving to obtain the vacant throne. All authority over the troops was lost, and a rupture became almost inevitable. The Sikhs rushed across the frontier, and on the 18th December 1845, attacked the advanced guard of the British army of observation at Moodkee. They were repulsed with a loss of fifteen pieces of cannon. Next day the British advanced to Ferozeshah, and on the 21st they attacked the intrenched position of the Sikhs. The first line of works was carried; but the night came on so dark that further operations were suspended. At daylight on the 22d the other line of intrenchments was carried in half an hour, and the guns were captured. In the afternoon the enemy attempted to recover their artillery, but all their attacks were repulsed, and they retreated across the Sutledge. On the 28th January 1846, Sir Harry Smith distinguished himself by the defeat of 24,000 Sikhs near Aliwal and the capture of their guns; and a fortnight later the campaign was ended by the victory of Sobraon, where the enemy

lost 10,000 men, sixty-seven guns, and several standards (10th February). Ten days after this, the Maharajah of Lahore made his submission to Sir Henry Hardinge, the governor-general, and was conducted to his capital by the British army under the commander-in-chief Sir Hugh Gough.

Still, however, the Sikhs were unsubdued. War was their trade—they had fine horses and arms, with a great force of artillery, and, in 1848, they threatened the British army of observation with a formidable force. On the 13th of January 1849, their army commanded by Shere Singh was attacked by Lord Gough at Chillianwallah, on the river Jelum. The Sikhs were strongly posted, and it was the general opinion that the attack had been made with more bravery than judgment. The result was called a victory, but it was not like those sweeping triumphs to which our troops were accustomed in conflicts with oriental armies. There was a great slaughter on the British side, and the enemy retained their position. This affair created considerable excitement among the public at home, who maintained that even out of mercy to the headstrong Sikhs, the strongest measures should be adopted, and a general sent out capable of executing them. Sir Charles Napier was universally pointed at; and he was selected for the office of commander-in-chief. In the meantime, however, more cheering news arrived. The city of Mooltan was taken, 2d Jan., and its strong citadel was surrendered by the Dewan Moolraj on the 22d. On the 21st of February, Lord Gough redeemed his reputation by the decisive battle of Goojerat, in which, with an army of 25,000 men, a force supposed to amount to 60,000 was broken and dispersed. The Sikhs now saw that it was in vain to rally, and surrendered unconditionally. On the 29th March, the Punjaub was by proclamation of the governor-general annexed to British India; and thus through the wilful perverseness of its tyrants, we became as it were by necessity possessed of a territory of about 50,000 square miles, with a population amounting to four millions, and with many fruitful districts, among which is the vale of Cashmere, celebrated for the mildness of its climate, the beauty of its scenery, and the rich produce of its looms. Cashmere was afterwards made independent under its late able ruler Gholab Singh. Our Indian territory has since been increased by additions on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, and by the annexation of Nagpore on the death of the rajah (1853), and of Oude, in consequence of the misgovernment of the king (1856). These

events, with the mutiny of the Bengal army, have been described in the preceding pages. Since that time India has enjoyed peace at home and abroad, interrupted only by natural calamities, against which the hand of man is almost powerless. In 1864, the eastern coast from Calcutta to Madras was ravaged by a terrible hurricane or cyclone. The waters of the Ganges, driven back by the wind, submerged many of the low islands at its mouth: in one of them (Saugor) 7000 persons were drowned out of a population of 8500. At Masulipatam, farther down the coast, the sea broke in along a space of 80 miles to 27 miles inland, destroying villages, crops, and cattle, filling up the wells, and drowning those who attempted to escape during the darkness and horror of the night. It has been estimated that nearly 70,000 souls perished. When the waters retired, the bodies of men and animals left behind were so numerous, that the utmost exertions of the British authorities in burying and burning them, and providing food and shelter for the wretched survivors, were required, to prevent the additional calamities of starvation and pestilence. By an act passed in 1858, the government of India was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown, under the direction of a secretary of state aided by a council. The total revenue of India for the year 1866 was about 49 millions, of which 24 millions were derived from the land-tax; $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions from salt; $8\frac{1}{2}$ millions from opium. The expenditure was nearly equal to the income.

The natural boundaries of the Indian peninsula, or Hindostan, are the snowy summits of the Himalaya on the north, the Indus on the north-west, the Irrawady on the north-east, and the encircling ocean. Its mountains are the highest in the world, one of its rivers (the Indus) is more than 1700 miles in length, and the plain of Bengal rivals in luxuriance the most fertile regions of the globe. There are few vegetable productions which are not to be found in the various climates of the peninsula. Wheat, barley, and oats are cultivated on the sides of the mountains, with peaches, apples, pears, and strawberries. In the peculiar produce of tropical regions, rice, indigo, sugar, opium, cotton, pine-apples, figs, dates, mangoes, &c., India vies with the most favoured countries; the bright colours and the perfume of its flowers, the varied plumage of its birds, enliven its dense forests;

the camel and the elephant serve the wants of man ; while its rivers and jungles are the retreat of the rhinoceros, the alligator, the tiger, and the deadly serpent.

Nor are the inhabitants of Hindostan less varied than the climate and its productions. Sixty millions of Hindoos, peaceful worshippers of Brahma and Vishnu, dwell along the banks of the Ganges ; a race of hardy highlanders inhabits the mountains of Nepaul ; and the elevated tableland of Mysore, rising from three to four thousand feet above the level of the sea, is the home of an impetuous race of horsemen, who with the Mahratta cavalry and the gunners of Affghanistan have been the most intrepid native defenders of the British power. Thirty distinct nations, almost unknown to each other, speaking different tongues, and professing every variety of pagan and even christian creed, are to be found in that country which Alexander of Macedon barely saw, and over which rushed with fire and sword the devastating hosts of Tamerlane and Nadir Shah.

The regular communication between India and Britain used to be by the Company's sailing vessels round the Cape of Good Hope, which occupied, according to circumstances, from four to eight months in the voyage. So early as 1823, the idea of a steam communication with India was entertained, and a reward was offered to any one who should accomplish the passage between London and Calcutta in seventy-five days. An enterprising officer of the name of Waghorn afterwards showed that the passage could be much shortened by adopting the route across the Isthmus of Suez, which separates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea. From 1838 downwards, various projects were suggested and attempted to accomplish this end. More than one company contracted to carry passengers overland, and after 1838 the mails were transmitted through Egypt with considerable regularity. At length a monthly communication was established, by which passengers and letters might be conveyed between London and Calcutta in about six weeks. Facilities were adopted for shortening even this route, by arranging with the French government for a passage through France in connexion with each mail, making the journey several days shorter. When this system was organized, it was deemed important that the Company should possess a station for their vessels on the Arabian shore of the Red Sea, and the

small territory of Aden was obtained, with a town which had once been important, but was reduced to a few ruined huts. It is now rapidly rising to more than its former greatness, and will probably soon engross the commerce of the Red Sea. The mail now leaves every week, and letters from Bombay reach London in about twenty-one days; besides which, an almost unbroken telegraph line connects the two cities.

10. Off the coast of Coromandel, a part of the East Indies, is the fine island of Ceylon. It is a regular colony of the British crown, and is thus distinguished from the territories under the direction of the East India Company. It has extensive cinnamon and coffee plantations, and is celebrated for its pearl fishery. The interior is mountainous, and the climate thus varies so much, that, though near the equator, parts of it are cool and healthy. It was in early times colonized by the Portuguese, and afterwards by the Dutch, who were dispossessed by the British, but was not entirely subjected to our colonial government until the year 1819. Its population exceeds two millions.

Among the British possessions in Asia we must now include the rising colony of Hong Kong, 20 years ago an insignificant and almost unknown spot. It is a small island not above eight miles long, opposite the mouth of the Canton River, and about 100 miles from that town. It was ceded to the British at the conclusion of the Chinese war in 1843, and is becoming fast covered with houses and gardens, and acquiring a numerous busy population. It is said that in 1841 the population did not amount to above 5000, while it had reached 30,000 before the British were two years in possession of the island, and in 1866 was more than 115,000.

In 1844, the small island of Labuan, off the coast of Borneo, was ceded by the sultan of that territory to the British. Its value is in some measure like that of Hong Kong, in affording a station for trading with a large territory. In the midst of a countless multitude of islands in the Indian seas, on each side of the equator, the huge bulk of Borneo is conspicuous, and it is usually called the largest island in the world, Australia being considered a continent. Hitherto it has been a great nest of pirates, and its inhabitants have only been civilized enough to know how to be cruel and mischievous. Its resources having been opened to the world

by the late Sir James Brooke, it may be hoped that the beneficial effects of commerce will soon be felt, while the presence of a British force will facilitate trade by clearing the seas of robbers. From Borneo are exported gold, spices, ornamental woods, pearls, sago, rice, the birds' nests eaten by the Chinese, and gutta percha, which is becoming an interesting and important article of European traffic. Along the coast of the Malay peninsula, which stretches to a great distance southwards from the continent of Asia, there are the small British possessions of Pulo Penang and Malacca, with the island of Singapore, about twenty-seven miles long, at the extremity of the peninsula. Their chief productions and articles of trade are gold dust, tin, ivory, fruits, gums, spices, ornamental woods, and silk.

11. AUSTRALASIA. — The huge island or continent of Australia, which covers so large a portion of the globe, is important among other colonies, not so much for what has been accomplished there as for what is promised. A strange mystery covers that vast land, which even British activity and enterprise have not been able to solve. Though cities have been built, thousands on thousands of acres cultivated, and flocks of emigrants have here and there roamed over pastures as extensive as Great Britain, yet we know very little of the country beyond a mere fringe along the coast.

It was usual in the reign of George the Third to send convicted criminals as slaves to the American plantations. The war of independence put a stop to it, and in 1788 the practice of transporting them to Australia began. Among many other beautiful spots along the coast, one, from the profusion of flowers found on it, was called Botany Bay. Here it was resolved to deposit the mass of moral corruption rejected by our great cities, and the town of Sydney on Port Jackson had thus its origin. How to deal out punishment to criminals is one of the most difficult problems of social science. It has been tried in Australia in many different shapes, each accompanied with more or less of evil. In the mean time, the advantages of the place tempted free emigrants to inhabit it. In 1840, it was deemed wise to discontinue any part of the colony of New South Wales as a settlement for convicts, and Van Diemen's Land or Tasmania, an island separated from it by a strait at its southern extremity, became the chief penal settlement. Sydney is

on the eastern side of the continent. Many of its inhabitants, finding abundant pasture and fruitful lands on other parts of the coast, changed their place of residence, and were joined in their new abode by multitudes of emigrants, some with money, others with nothing but their labour,—to them a valuable commodity. Thus arose the settlement of Port Phillip or Victoria at the southern extremity, opposite to Van Diemen's Land; of Swan River or West Australia (still a penal colony); and Adelaide or South Australia commenced in 1837, with many smaller ones which dot the vast coast between them. In 1838, a new settlement was commenced at Port Essington, towards the northern extremity of the land where it approaches the Indian Archipelago; and in 1859 the colony of Queensland was formed out of the northern portion of New South Wales, with Brisbane for its capital.

The political and social progress of these colonies has been very remarkable. Under the Australian Colonies Government Act of 1850, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Tasmania, enjoy the privilege of self-government, under constitutions framed by themselves, and based on that of England. The restrictions are only to prevent the colonies from legislating directly against the mother-country. The population of Australia is nearly 2 millions, of which Victoria alone, in 1866, contained 640,000. Western Australia, as a convict settlement, still remains under the control of the home government. In 1863, the revenue of these colonies exceeded eight millions sterling; the exports and imports together amounting to more than 50 millions. The former consist principally of wool, copper, and gold. The wool exported to Great Britain in 1860 was 60,000,000 lbs., a greater quantity than we receive from all the rest of the world put together. The exports of copper are very large and valuable; but it is chiefly owing to their gold diggings that these colonies have advanced so rapidly during the last ten years. Until the discovery of the Californian gold mines, the supply of the precious metal, averaging five millions sterling a year, came principally from Siberia, Hungary, Transylvania, and Brazil. In February 1851, a person named Hargreaves was so lucky as to find gold near Bathurst, in New South Wales. It was so plentiful that before the end of the year the quantity exported from Sydney was worth $1\frac{1}{2}$ million. In the same year the

gold districts of Ballarat and Mount Alexander in Victoria began to be explored. Since that time the yield has increased to such an extent that the total exports up to December 1860 amounted to £112,000,000. At the same time, a regular stream of emigration from the United Kingdom has been pouring into these colonies. In 1847 the number of emigrants was under 5000, in 1864 it was over 36,000. In 1865 the imports into Victoria alone were valued at 13 millions, and the exports, chiefly in gold and wool, at 14 millions. The property of the banking and other financial institutions was not less than 10 millions, and the commodities stored in the Melbourne warehouses, seldom less than six months' supply, was worth 5 millions.

To the south-eastward of the Australian continent lie the islands of New Zealand, covering a surface about the size of Great Britain and Ireland. Two centuries have elapsed since they were discovered by the Dutch, but little was seen of the natives until the days of Captain Cook. They were found to be cannibals, and otherwise so ferocious that no country seemed inclined to have much intercourse with them. It was remarked, that while they were more warlike and fierce than other newly discovered tribes, they were further advanced in civilisation. They had learned some arts, but unfortunately their teachers had been war and paganism—not peace and Christianity. So severe had been their contests with each other, that their large territory did not contain above 55,000 native inhabitants. Though government long abstained from founding settlements in New Zealand, yet such was the beauty and fertility of the coast, that many Europeans took up their abode there in little communities, fighting with or conciliating the natives as they best could. In 1837, a New Zealand Company was formed, and bought land for a settlement from the chiefs. It was now thought fit by government to provide the means of protecting and governing a colony, which would certainly be formed on a considerable scale. The cities of Wellington and Nelson were founded in 1830; Otago, about 400 miles distant from the former place, was settled by Scotchmen, members of the Free Church; while Canterbury is the capital of a settlement in connexion with the Church of England. In 1850, a constitution was granted to New Zealand in common with other British colonies in the South Pacific. At

the close of 1866 the European population amounted to nearly 220,000; its imports were valued at £2,551,000, and its exports at £950,000. Among the articles which the islands produce, are various useful and ornamental woods, dye-stuffs, gums and drugs, salt, coal, sulphur and metals. In 1860, and again in 1863, war broke out with the natives, who commenced hostilities by murdering the English settlers. Prompt measures were taken to check the revolt: General Cameron marched against the native force, which, in spite of its numbers and desperate fighting, was defeated with great loss. At last the stronghold of Kiri-Kiri was taken, and the war was virtually ended, though small bands of Maoris continued to ravage the province of Auckland. At length the colonists rose in their own defence, and in a few weeks there were 4000 volunteers and militia under arms. The war lingered on until August 1864, when it was ended by the almost unconditional surrender of the Maoris, whose revolt was punished by the forfeiture of a small portion of their lands.

EXERCISES.

1. Describe generally the character and effects of British colonization. Mention particular instances of its influence.

2. What settlements were first made in America? How did they cease to belong to Britain? Give an account of the West Indian Islands, Honduras, and British Guiana. What happened to Jamaica in 1865? What possessions do we hold in North America? How did the Canadians show their loyalty? What do they export? What change has been made in their government?

3. Enumerate the British possessions in Africa. Which of them is the most important? What do we receive from Western Africa? Give an account of the Mauritius.

4. Mention the periods of the earliest settlements in India. What were the projects of Dupleix? Who captured Arcot? Give a history of the affair of the Black Hole of Calcutta. What was the result of the battle of Plassey?

5. What did Warren Hasting achieve? What event followed his return? What important capture terminated Lord Wellesley's proceedings? What did General Lake accomplish? What were the services of Major-general Wellesley in India? When and in what circumstances did the last Mogul emperor die? Who were the Gorkhas and the Pindarees? What took place in 1826?

6. What was the plan adopted for counteracting the projects of Russia? Who was placed on the Affghan throne? What were the consequences? Describe the disasters of 1841 and 1842. How was the news received in Britain? What measures were adopted to retrieve them.

7. What made Scinde an object of importance? What measures did Lord Ellenborough adopt towards it? What was the conduct of the Ameers? What was its result? What took place at Dubba?

8. Describe the rise of Maha Sing. What was the character of his son? What did he achieve? What occurred after the death of his successor? What events occurred in the Sikh war of 1846? How did the war break out again? How was it brought to a termination? What territory was annexed to British India? What change has been made in the Indian Government? What happened in 1864?

9. What extent of country is under the control of the English Government? What are its natural boundaries? What are its productions? Mention some remarkable things about the people. Give an account of the progress of our communication with India.

10. Where is Ceylon? What are its productions? What is the nature of its climate? Where is Hong Kong? How was it acquired? Where is Labuan? What is to be expected from our intercourse with Borneo? What possessions have we in connexion with the Malay peninsula?

11. What is remarkable about Australia and our knowledge of it? How did the practice of transporting criminals thither begin? Where was the penal settlement first established? To what places was it afterwards restricted? Give an account of the later settlements in Australia. Results of the gold discoveries. What are the chief exports from our Australian colonies? What has been the progress of the settlement in New Zealand, and the nature of our intercourse with the inhabitants? Which are the principal settlements? How was the last Maori war ended.

THE END.

EDUCATIONAL WORKS

PUBLISHED BY

OLIVER AND BOYD, EDINBURGH;

SOLD ALSO BY

SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, AND CO., LONDON.

Messrs Oliver and Boyd were awarded Medals for their Educational Works by Her Majesty's Commissioners of the London International Exhibition of 1862, and by the Jurors of the Paris Universal Exhibition of 1867.

English Reading, Grammar, etc.

Armstrong's Eng. Composition...P.	6
..... Eng. Etymology.....	6
Connon's English Grammar.....	4
..... First Spelling-Book.....	4
Cowper's Poems, with Life.....	7
Dalglish's English Grammars.....	5
..... Gram. Analysis.....	5
..... Eng. Composition.....	5
Demaus' Paradise Lost.....	6
..... Analysis of Sentences	6
Ewing's Elocution.....	7
Fisher's Assembly's Catechism Explained	8
Fulton's Johnson's Dictionary..	7
Lennie's English Grammar	6
M'Culloch's Reading-Books.....	3, 4
..... English Grammar.....	4
M'Dowall's Rhetorical Readings....	7
Millen's English Grammar.....	7
Milton's Poems, with Life & Notes.	7
Morell's Poetical Reading-Book....	4
Reid's English Grammar.....	5
..... English Composition.....	5
..... English Dictionary	5
Seas. School Etymological Guide...	8
..... Old Test. Biography... ..	8
..... New Test. Biography.	8
Shakspeare's Richard II.....	6
Spalding's English Literature.....	7
White's English Grammar.....	7
Wordsworth's Excursion	6

School Songs.

Hunter's School Songs.....	17
School Psalmody	17

Object Lessons.

Object Lessons on the Vegetable Kingdom	P. 7
Ross's How to Train Young Eyes and Ears.....	7
Household Economy.	
Brewster's Household Economy....	8
Geography and Astronomy.	
Clyde's School Geography	8
..... Elementary Geography	9
Edin. Acad. Modern Geography....	9
..... Ancient Geography....	9
Ewing's Geography.....	10
..... Atlas	11
Lawson's Geog. of British Empire..	9
Murphy's Bible Atlas.....	10
Reid's First Book of Geography	10
..... Modern Geography.....	10
..... Sacred Geography.....	10
..... Introductory and School Atlases	11
Reid's (Hugo) Elements of Astro- nomy.....	10
..... Phys. Geography....	10
Stewart's Modern Geography.....	9
White's Abstract of Geography....	9
..... System of Geography.....	9
..... Atlases.....	11
History.	
Corkran's History of England.....	11
Simpson's Scotland.....	13
..... Goldsmith's England.....	13
..... Greece.....	13
..... Rome.....	13

Tyler's General History.....	P. 13
Watt's Scripture History.....	13
White's Universal History.....	12, 13
..... England for Jun. Classes..	12
..... History of France.....	12
..... Great Britain and Ireland..	12
..... Sacred History.....	13
..... Histories of Scotland.....	12
..... History of Rome	13

Writing, Arithmetic, etc.

Gray's Arithmetic.....	15
Hutton's Arithmetic, etc.....	15
Ingram's Principles of Arithmetic..	15
MacLaren's Arithmetic	16
..... Book-keeping.....	16
Melrose's Arithmetic.....	15
Scott's Arithmetical Works.....	16
..... Copy Books & Copy Lines..	16
Smith's Arithmetical Works.....	14
Stewart's Arithmetical Works.....	15
Trotter's Arithmetical Works...14, 15	
..... Hutton's Book-keeping..	15

Gaelic.

Forbes' Gaelic Grammar	16
------------------------------	----

Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, etc.

Ingram's System of Mathematics...16	
..... Mensuration, by Trotter..	16
Trotter's Key to Ingram's Mathematics.....	16
..... Manual of Logarithms....	16
Ingram and Trotter's Euclid.....	16
..... Algebra.....	16
Lees' Natural Philosophy.....	17
Nicol's Sciences.....	17

French.

Beljame's French Grammar, etc....	20
Caron's First French Class-Book...	20
..... First French Reading-Book...	20
..... French Grammar.....	20
Chambaud's Fables Choieses.....	18
Christison's French Grammar.....	20
..... Fables et Contes Choieses...	20
..... Fleury's History of France..	20
French New Testament.....	18
Gibson's Le Petit Fablier.....	18
Hallard's French Grammar.....	20
Schneider's Conversation Grammar	18
..... French Reader.....	18
..... French Manual.....	18
..... Écoré Littéraire.....	18

Sareane's Dictionaries.....	P. 19
..... New French Manual, etc....	19
..... New French Dialogues.....	19
..... French Classics.....	19, 20
..... French Reading Instructor..	20
Wolski's French Extracts.....	18
..... French Grammar	18

Latin and Greek.

Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary.....	23
Cicero's Orationes Selectæ.....	24
..... Cato Major, De Officiis....	24
Clyde's Greek Syntax	21
Dymock's Cæsar and Sallust.....	22
Edin. Academy Class-Books:—	
..... Rudiments of Latin Language...	21
..... Latin Delectus.....	21
..... Rudiments of Greek Language...	21
..... Greek Extracts.....	21
..... Ciceronis Opera Selecta.....	21
..... Selecta e Poetis.....	21
Ferguson's (Prof.) Gram. Exercises	24
..... Latin Delectus.....	24
..... Ovid's Metamorphoses	24
Fergusson's (Dr) Xenophon's Anabasis.....	23
..... Greek Gram. Exercises.....	23
..... Homer's Iliad, with Vocab. ..	23
Geddes' (Prof.) Greek Grammar...21	
Greek Testament, by Duncan.....	23
Hunter's Ruddiman's Rudiments...21	
..... Sallust, Virgil, and Horace...	22
..... Livy, Books 21 to 25.....	22
Latin Testament, by Reza.....	23
Macgowan's Latin Lessons	22
Mair's Introduction, by Stewart...22	
Massie's Latin Prose Composition..22	
M'Dowall's Cæsar and Virgil.....	22
Melville's Lectiones Selectæ	22
Neilson's Eutropius and Aurelius Victor.....	22
Stewart's Cornelius Nepos.....	23
Veitch's Homer's Iliad.....	23

Italian.

Lemmi's Italian Grammar....	17
-----------------------------	----

Logic.

Port-Royal Logic (Prof. Baynes)...	24
------------------------------------	----

School Registers.

Pupil's Daily Register of Marks...	17
School Register of Attendance, Absence, and Fees.....	17

A SPECIMEN COPY OF ANY WORK WILL BE SENT POST FREE ON RECEIPT OF THE RETAIL PRICE IN POSTAGE STAMPS.

EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

ENGLISH READING, GRAMMAR, ETC.

In the initiatory department of instruction a valuable series of works has been prepared by Dr M'CULLOCH, formerly Head Master of the Circus Place School, Edinburgh, now Minister of the West Church, Greenock.

DR M'CULLOCH'S SERIES OF CLASS-BOOKS.

These Books are intended for the use of Schools where the general mental culture of the pupil, as well as his proficiency in the art of reading, is studiously and systematically aimed at.

They form, collectively, a progressional Series, so constructed and graduated as to conduct the pupil, by regular stages, from the elementary sounds of the language to its highest and most complex forms of speech; and each separate Book is also progressively arranged,—the lessons which are more easily read and understood always taking the lead, and preparing the way for those of greater difficulty.

The subject-matter of the Books is purposely miscellaneous. Yet it is always of a character to excite the interest and enlarge the knowledge of the reader. And with the design of more effectually promoting his mental growth and nurture, the various topics are introduced in an order conformable to that in which the chief faculties of the juvenile mind are usually developed.

That the moral feelings of the pupil may not be without their proper stimulus and nutriment, the lessons are pervaded throughout by the religious and Christian element.

NEW AND GREATLY IMPROVED EDITIONS.

Dr M'Culloch's First Reading-Book. 1½d.

Dr M'Culloch's Second Reading-Book. 3d.

Dr M'Culloch's Third Reading-Book, containing simple Pieces in Prose and Verse, with Exercises on the more difficult Words and Sounds. 10d.

Dr M'Culloch's Fourth Reading-Book, containing only Lessons likely to interest and please. With SYNOPSIS of SPELLING. 1s. 6d.

Dr M'Culloch's Series of Lessons in Prose and Verse. 2s.

Dr M'Culloch's Course of Elementary Reading in SCIENCE and LITERATURE, compiled from popular Writers, 39 Woodcuts. 3s.

Lessons from Dr M'Culloch's First Reading-Book,
printed with LARGE TYPE, in a Series of Ten Sheets, for Hanging
on the Wall. Price 1s. ; or mounted on Roller, 1s. 8d.

**Dr M'Culloch's Manual of English Grammar, Philo-
sophical and Practical; with Exercises; adapted to the Analytical
mode of Tuition. 1s. 6d.**

English Prefixes and Affixes. 2d.

In all the books of Dr M'Culloch's series, the important object of exer-
cising the juvenile mind by means of lessons on useful and interesting
subjects is steadily kept in view. Directions are given relative to the
mode of teaching, as well as tables and lists calculated to assist in the
process of instruction. On this point the *Spectator* newspaper, when re-
viewing the series, remarked:—"In recommending these books, it must not
be conceived that we recommend them as likely to save trouble to the teacher,
or to operate by witchcraft on the pupil. At their first introduction they will
require some care on the part of the master, as well as the exercise of some
patience, to enable the pupil to profit by the lessons. But this once done,
their foundation is sound, and their progress sure. And let both parents and
teachers bear in mind that these are the only means to acquire real knowledge."

**Poetical Reading-Book, with Aids for Grammatical
Analysis, Paraphrase, and Criticism; and an Appendix on English
Versification. By J. D. MORELL, A.M., LL.D., Author of Gram-
mar of the English Language, etc., and W. IHNE, Ph. D. 2s. 6d.**
Containing,

THE DESERTED VILLAGE.

THE TASK (Book I.)

PARADISE LOST (Books I. and V.)

THE MERCHANT OF VENICE.

MISCELLANEOUS SELECTIONS.

THE PRISONER OF CHILLON.

THE FIELD OF WATERLOO.

Dr Morell, in the preface to his "Grammar of the English Language,"
says—"As great care was taken to adapt this book [the Poetical Reading-
Book] to the requirements of teachers using the Grammar, and special marks
invented for indicating the correct analysis of the poetical extracts con-
tained in it, I take the present opportunity of recommending it to the
attention of the higher classes of schools in the country."

**English Grammar, founded on the Philosophy of Language
and the Practice of the best Authors. With Copious Exercises,
Constructive and Analytical. By C. W. CONNOR, LL.D. 2s. 6d.**

Spectator.—"It exhibits great ability, combining practical skill with philo-
sophical views."

Connor's First Spelling Book. 6d.

**Outlines of English Grammar and Analysis, for
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, with EXERCISES.** By WALTER SCOTT
DALGLEISH, M.A. Edin., Head-Master of Dreghorn College. 8d.
KEY, 1s.

Preface.—"Aims at providing a COMMON-SCHOOL GRAMMAR which shall be fully abreast of the latest developments of the science, and at the same time thoroughly practical and simple in its mode of treating the subject."

**Dalgleish's Progressive English Grammar, with EXER-
CISES.** 2s. KEY, 2s. 6d.

From DR JOSEPH BOSWORTH, *Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of
Oxford; Author of the Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, etc., etc.*

"Quite a practical work, and contains a vast quantity of important information, well arranged, and brought up to the present improved state of philology. I have never seen so much matter brought together in so short a space."

**Dalgleish's Grammatical Analysis, with PROGRESSIVE
EXERCISES.** 9d. KEY, 2s.

**Dalgleish's Introductory Text-Book of English
COMPOSITION, based on GRAMMATICAL SYNTHESIS; containing
Sentences, Paragraphs, and Short Essays.** 1s.

**Dalgleish's Advanced Text-Book of English Com-
POSITION, treating of Style, Prose Themes, and Versification.**
2s. Both Books bound together, 2s. 6d. KEY, 2s. 6d.

**A Dictionary of the English Language, containing
the Pronunciation, Etymology, and Explanation of all Words author-
ized by Eminent Writers.** By ALEXANDER REID, LL.D., late
Head Master of the Edinburgh Institution. Reduced to 5s.

The Work is adapted to the present state of the English language and the improved methods of teaching. While the alphabetical arrangement is preserved, the words are grouped in such a manner as to show their etymological affinity; and after the first word of each group is given the root from which they are derived. These roots are afterwards arranged into a vocabulary. At the end is a Vocabulary of Classical and Scriptural Proper Names.

Dr Reid's Rudiments of English Grammar. 6d.

Dr Reid's Rudiments of English Composition. 2s.
KEY, 2s. 6d.

The volume is divided into three parts: Part I. is meant to guide to correctness in spelling, punctuation, the use of words, and the structure and arrangement of sentences; Part II. to correctness and perspicuity in style, and to a tasteful use of ornament in writing; and Part III. to the practice of the preceding rules and exercises in various kinds of original composition.

Shakspeare's King Richard II. With Historical and Critical Introductions; Grammatical, Philological, and Miscellaneous Notes, etc. Adapted for the Use of Pupils in Training Colleges, Candidates for Civil Service and other Examinations, and of Students in English Literature generally. By the Rev. H. G. ROBINSON, M.A., late Principal of the Diocesan Training College, York. 2s.

Wordsworth's Excursion. Book I. The Wanderer. With Notes to aid in Analysis and Paraphrasing. By Rev. CANON ROBINSON. 8d.

English Composition for the Use of Schools. By ROBERT ARMSTRONG, Madras College, St Andrews; and THOMAS ARMSTRONG, Heriot Foundation School, Edinburgh. Part I. 1s. 6d. Part II. 2s. Both Parts bound together, 3s. KEY, 2s.

Economy of time in the class-room has been prominently kept in view in the compilation of the work. The exercises, which are so planned as to afford ample employment to the pupils when left to themselves, proceed upon a system of gradation intended to render their progress easy and interesting. They will also be found convenient for home work; and, when performed, it is recommended that they should be criticised by the master in presence of the class. Those prescribed for Oral Composition, in particular, will afford him a favourable opportunity of illustrating and suggesting in that familiar style so much calculated to give confidence, and produce advantageous results, in this branch of education.

Armstrong's English Etymology for Schools. 2s.

Armstrong's English Etymology for Junior Classes. 4d.

Principles of English Grammar, by WILLIAM LENNIE, late Teacher of English, Edinburgh. Comprising the Substance of all the most approved English Grammars, briefly defined, and neatly arranged; with Copious Exercises in Parsing and Syntax. *Improved Edition.* 1s. 6d.

The Author's Key, containing, besides Additional Exercises in Parsing and Syntax, many useful Critical Remarks, Hints, and Observations, and *explicit and detailed instructions as to the best method of teaching Grammar.* 2s. 6d.

Selections from Paradise Lost; with NOTES, adapted for Elementary Schools, by Rev ROBERT DEMAUS, M.A., F.E.I.S., West End Academy, Aberdeen. 1s. 6d.

The Selections have been chosen so as to furnish a continuous narrative.

Demaus' Analysis of Sentences. 3d.

History of English Literature; with an OUTLINE of the ORIGIN and GROWTH of the ENGLISH LANGUAGE. Illustrated by EXTRACTS. For Schools and Private Students. By WILLIAM SPALDING, A.M., Professor of Logic, Rhetoric, and Metaphysica, in the University of St Andrews. 3s. 6d.

Spectator.—"A compilation and text-book of a very superior kind. . . . Mr Spalding has brought to his survey not only a knowledge of our history and literature, but original reflection, a comprehensive mind, and an elevation of tone, which impart interest to his account, as well as soundness to his decision. The volume is the best introduction to the subject we have met with."

Athenæum.—"The numerous extracts scattered throughout the volume are well chosen for the purpose of throwing light on the authors from whom they are taken, and at the same time exhibiting the gradual advance of our literature from its earliest to its present state. Mr Spalding's critical remarks are discriminating, impartial, judicious, and always well put."

System of English Grammar, and the Principles of Composition. With numerous Exercises, progressively arranged. By JOHN WHITE, F.E.I.S. 1s. 6d.

Millen's Initiatory English Grammar. 1s.

Fulton's Johnson's Dictionary. 1s. 6d.

Ewing's Principles of Elocution, improved by F. B. CALVERT, A.M. 3s. 6d.

Consists of numerous rules, observations, and exercises on pronunciation, pauses, inflections, accent, and emphasis, accompanied with copious extracts in prose and poetry.

Rhetorical Readings for Schools. By WILLIAM M'DOWALL, late Inspector of the Heriot Foundation Schools, Edinburgh. 2s. 6d.

Milton's Poetical Works, with LIFE and NOTES. (Oliver and Boyd's Edition.) 2s.

Cowper's Poems, with LIFE by M'DIARMID. 2s.

Object-Lesson Cards on the Vegetable Kingdom. Set of Twenty in a Box. £1, 1s.

The design of this Series is to give a short description of some Plants which are cultivated for their useful properties, *each subject being illustrated with specimens* (attached to the Cards) *of the various objects described*: forming in this department an interesting Industrial Museum, which will be found of great value in the education of the young.

How to Train Young Eyes and Ears; being a MANUAL of OBJECT LESSONS for PARENTS and TEACHERS. By MARY ANNE ROSS, Mistress of the Church of Scotland Normal Infant School, Edinburgh. 1s. 6d.

Household Economy: a MANUAL intended for Female Training Colleges, and the Senior Classes of Girls' Schools. By MARGARET MARIA GORDON (Miss Brewster), Author of "Work, or Plenty to do and how to do it," etc. 2s.

Athenæum.—"Written in a plain, genial, attractive manner, and constituting, in the best sense of the word, a practical domestic manual."

SESSIONAL SCHOOL BOOKS.

Etymological Guide. 2s. 6d.

This is a collection, alphabetically arranged, of the principal roots, affixes, and prefixes, with their derivatives and compounds.

Old Testament Biography, containing notices of the chief persons in Holy Scripture, in the form of Questions, with references to Scripture for the Answers. 6d.

New Testament Biography, on the same Plan. 6d.

Fisher's Assembly's Shorter Catechism Explained. 2s.

PART I. Of what Man is to believe concerning God.

II. Of what duty God requires of Man.

GEOGRAPHY AND ASTRONOMY.

In compiling the works on these subjects the utmost possible care has been taken to ensure clearness and accuracy of statement. Each edition is scrupulously revised as it passes through the press, so that the works may be confidently relied on as containing the latest information accessible at the time of publication.

School Geography. By JAMES CLYDE, LL.D., one of the Classical Masters of the Edinburgh Academy. With special Chapters on Mathematical and Physical Geography, and Technological Appendix. *Corrected throughout.* 4s.

In composing the present work, the author's object has been, not to dissect the several countries of the world, and then label their dead limbs, but to depict each country, as made by God and modified by man, so that the relations between the country and its inhabitants—in other words, the present geographical life of the country—may appear.

Athenæum.—"We have been struck with the ability and value of this work, which is a great advance upon previous Geographic Manuals. . . . Almost for the first time, we have here met with a School Geography that is quite a readable book,—one that, being intended for advanced pupils, is well adapted to make them study the subject with a degree of interest they have never yet felt in it. . . . Students preparing for the recently instituted University and Civil Service examinations will find this their best guide."

Dr Clyde's Elementary Geography. *Corrected throughout.* 1s. 6d.

In the *Elementary Geography* (Intended for less advanced pupils), it has been endeavoured to reproduce that life-like grouping of facts—geographical portraiture, as it may be called—which has been remarked with approbation in the *School Geography*.

A Compendium of Modern Geography, POLITICAL, PHYSICAL, and MATHEMATICAL: With a Chapter on the Ancient Geography of Palestine, Outlines of Astronomy and of Geology, a Glossary of Geographical Names, Descriptive and Pronouncing Tables, Questions for Examination, etc. By the Rev. ALEXANDER STEWART, LL.D. *Carefully Revised.* With 11 Maps. 3s. 6d.

The work includes an Alphabetical Table of the Chief Roots of Geographical Names.

Geography of the British Empire. By WILLIAM LAWSON, St Mark's College, Chelsea. *Carefully Revised.* 3s.

PART I. Outlines of Mathematical and Physical Geography.

II. Physical, Political, and Commercial Geography of the British Islands.

III. Physical, Political, and Commercial Geography of the British Colonies

The Museum.—"It is out of sight the best book on the subject that we possess. It is as far as possible removed from being a dry book. . . . The volume contains a vast amount of interesting and accurate information, well arranged and happily illustrated."

Edinburgh Academy Modern Geography; with an Index containing all the Names that occur in the work. *Carefully Revised.* 2s. 6d.

Edinburgh Academy Ancient Geography. 3s.

An Abstract of General Geography; comprehending a more minute Description of the British Empire, and of Palestine or the Holy Land, etc. With numerous Exercises. For Junior Classes. By JOHN WHITE, F.E.I.S., late Teacher, Edinburgh. *Carefully Revised.* 1s.; or with Four Maps, 1s. 3d.

White's System of Modern Geography; with Outlines of ASTRONOMY and PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, comprehending an Account of the Principal Towns, Climate, Soil, Productions, Religion, Education, Government, and Population of the various Countries. With a Compendium of Sacred Geography, Problems on the Globes, Exercises, etc. *Carefully Revised.* 2s. 6d.; or with Four Maps, 2s. 9d.

First Book of Geography; being an Abridgment of Dr Reid's Rudiments of Modern Geography; with an Outline of the Geography of Palestine. *Carefully Revised.* 6d.

This work has been prepared for the use of young pupils. It is a suitable and useful companion to Dr Reid's Introductory Atlas.

Rudiments of Modern Geography. By ALEX. REID, LL.D., late Head Master of the Edinburgh Institution. With Plates, Map of the World. *Carefully Revised.* 1s.; or with Five Maps, 1s. 3d.

The names of places are accented, and they are accompanied with short descriptions, and occasionally with the mention of some remarkable event. To the several countries are appended notices of their physical geography, productions, government, and religion. The Appendix contains an outline of ancient geography, an outline of sacred geography, problems on the use of the globes, and directions for the construction of maps.

Dr Reid's Outline of Sacred Geography. 6d.

This little work is a manual of Scripture Geography for young persons. It is designed to communicate such a knowledge of the places mentioned in holy writ as will enable children more clearly to understand the sacred narrative. It contains references to the passages of Scripture in which the most remarkable places are mentioned, notes chiefly historical and descriptive, and a Map of the Holy Land in provinces and tribes.

Murphy's Bible Atlas of 24 MAPS, with Historical Descriptions. 1s. 6d. coloured.

Witness.—"We recommend this Atlas to teachers, parents, and individual Christians, as a comprehensive and cheap auxiliary to the intelligent reading of the Scriptures.

Ewing's System of Geography. *Carefully Revised.* 4s. 6d.; with 14 Maps, 6s.

Besides a complete treatise on the science of geography, this work contains the elements of astronomy and of physical geography, and a variety of problems to be solved by the terrestrial and celestial globes. At the end is a pronouncing Vocabulary, in the form of a gazetteer, containing the names of all the places in the work.

Elements of Astronomy: adapted for Private Instruction and Use of Schools. By HUGO REID, Member of the College of Preceptors. With 65 Wood Engravings. 3s.

Reid's Elements of Physical Geography; with Outlines of GEOLOGY, MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY, and ASTRONOMY, and Questions for Examination. With numerous Illustrations, and a large coloured Physical Chart of the Globe. 1s.

REVISED EDITIONS OF SCHOOL ATLASES.

A General Atlas of Modern Geography; 29 Maps, Coloured. By THOMAS EWING. 7s. 6d.

School Atlas of Modern Geography. Maps 4to, folded 8vo, Coloured. By JOHN WHITE, F.E.I.S., Author of "Abstract of General Geography," etc. 6s.

White's Elementary Atlas of Modern Geography. 4to, 10 Maps, Coloured. 2s. 6d.

CONTENTS.—1. The World; 2. Europe; 3. Asia; 4. Africa; 5. North America; 6. South America; 7. England; 8. Scotland; 9. Ireland; 10. Palestine.

A School Atlas of Modern Geography. 4to, 16 Maps, Coloured. By ALEXANDER REID, I.L.D., late Head Master of the Edinburgh Institution, etc. 5s.

Reid's Introductory Atlas of Modern Geography. 4to, 10 Maps, Coloured. 2s. 6d.

CONTENTS.—1. The World; 2. Europe; 3. Asia; 4. Africa; 5. North America; 6. South America; 7. England; 8. Scotland; 9. Ireland; 10. Palestine.

HISTORY.

THE works in this department have been prepared with the greatest care. They will be found to include Class-books for Junior and Senior Classes in all the branches of History generally taught in the best schools. While the utmost attention has been paid to accuracy, the narratives have in every case been rendered as instructive and pleasing as possible, so as to relieve the study from the tediousness of a mere dry detail of facts.

A Concise History of England in Epochs. By J. F. CORKRAN. With Maps and Genealogical and Chronological Tables, and comprehensive Questions to each Chapter. 2s. 6d.

. *Intended chiefly for the Senior Classes of Schools, and for the Junior Students of Training Colleges.*

In this History of England the writer has endeavoured to convey a broad and full impression of its great Epochs, and to develop with care, but in subordination to the rest of the narrative, the growth of Law and of the Constitution. He has summarized events of minor importance; but where illustrious characters were to be brought into relief, or where the story of some great achievement merited a full narration, he has occupied more space than the length of the history might seem to justify; for it is his belief that a mere narration of the *Deeds* of England in her struggles for liberty and for a high place among the nations of the world, is more fertile in instruction to youth, and more stimulating to a healthy and laudable ambition than any other mode of treating our past.

Recent events have been treated with more than usual fulness.

History of England for Junior Classes; with Questions for Examination. Edited by HENRY WHITE, B.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, M.A. and Ph. Dr. Heidelberg. 1s. 6d.

Athenæum.—"A cheap and excellent history of England, admirably adapted for the use of junior classes. Within the compass of about a hundred and eighty duodecimo pages, the editor has managed to give all the leading facts of our history, dwelling with due emphasis on those turning points which mark our progress both at home and abroad. The various changes that have taken place in our constitution are briefly but clearly described. It is surprising how successfully the editor has not merely avoided the obscurity which generally accompanies brevity, but invested his narrative with an interest too often wanting in larger historical works. The information conveyed is thoroughly sound; and the utility of the book is much increased by the addition of examination questions at the end of each chapter. Whether regarded as an interesting reading-book or as an instructive class-book, this history deserves to rank high. When we add, that it appears in the form of a neat little volume at the moderate price of eighteenpence, no further recommendation will be necessary."

History of Great Britain and Ireland; with an Account of the Present State and Resources of the United Kingdom and its Colonies. With Questions for Examination, and a Map. By DR WHITE. 3s.

Athenæum.—"A carefully compiled history for the use of schools. The writer has consulted the more recent authorities: his opinions are liberal, and on the whole just and impartial: the succession of events is developed with clearness, and with more of that picturesque effect which so delights the young than is common in historical abstracts. The book is accompanied by a good map. For schools, parish and prison libraries, workmen's halls, and such institutions, it is better adapted than any abridgment of the kind we know."

History of Scotland for Junior Classes; with Questions for Examination. Edited by Dr WHITE. 1s. 6d.

History of Scotland, from the Earliest Period to the Present Time. With Questions for Examination. Edited by Dr WHITE. 3s. 6d.

History of France; with Questions for Examination, and a Map. Edited by Dr WHITE. 3s. 6d.

Athenæum.—"We have already had occasion to speak favourably of Dr White's 'History of Great Britain and Ireland.' The perusal of the present work has given us still greater pleasure. . . . Dr White is remarkably happy in combining convenient brevity with sufficiency of information, clearness of exposition, and interest of detail. He shows great judgment in apportioning to each subject its due amount of consideration."

Outlines of Universal History. Edited by Dr WHITE. 2s.

Spectator.—"Distinct in its arrangement, skilful in its selection of leading features, close and clear in its narrative."

Dr White's Elements of Universal History, on a New and Systematic Plan. In THREE PARTS. PART I. Ancient History; Part II. History of the Middle Ages; Part III., Modern History. With a Map of the World. 7s.; or in Parts, 2s. 6d. each.

This work contains numerous synoptical and other tables, to guide the researches of the student, with sketches of literature, antiquities, and manners during each of the great chronological epochs.

Outlines of the History of Rome; with Questions for Examination. Edited by Dr WHITE. 1s. 6d.

London Review.—"This abridgment is admirably adapted for the use of schools,—the best book that a teacher could place in the hand of a youthful student."

Sacred History, from the Creation of the World to the Destruction of Jerusalem. With Questions for Examination. Edited by Dr WHITE. 1s. 6d.

Baptist Magazine.—"An interesting epitome of sacred history, calculated to inspire the young with a love of the divine records, as well as to store the mind with knowledge."

Elements of General History, Ancient and Modern. To which are added, a Comparative View of Ancient and Modern Geography, and a Table of Chronology. By ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER, Lord Woodhouselee, formerly Professor of History in the University of Edinburgh. New Edition, with the History continued. With two large Maps, etc. 3s. 6d.

Watts' Catechism of Scripture History, and of the Condition of the Jews from the Close of the Old Testament to the Time of Christ. With INTRODUCTION by W. K. TWEEEDIE, D.D. 2s.

Simpson's History of Scotland; with an Outline of the British Constitution, and Questions for Examination at the end of each Section. 3s. 6d.

Simpson's Goldsmith's History of England; with the Narrative brought down to the Middle of the Nineteenth Century. To which is added an Outline of the British Constitution. With Questions for Examination at the end of each Section. 3s. 6d.

Simpson's Goldsmith's History of Greece. With Questions for Examination at the end of each Section. 3s. 6d.

Simpson's Goldsmith's History of Rome. With Questions for Examination at the end of each Section. 3s. 6d.

14 *Writing, Arithmetic, and Book-keeping.*

WRITING, ARITHMETIC, AND BOOK-KEEPING.

THIS section will be found to contain works in extensive use in many of the best schools in the United Kingdom. The successive editions have been carefully revised and amended.

Practical Arithmetic for Junior Classes. By HENRY G. C. SMITH, Teacher of Arithmetic and Mathematics in George Heriot's Hospital. 64 pages, 6d. stiff wrapper. *Answers*, 6d.

From the Rev. PHILIP KELLAND, A.M., F.R.SS. L. & E., late Fellow of Queens' College, Cambridge, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.

"I am glad to learn that Mr Smith's Manual for Junior Classes, the MS. of which I have examined, is nearly ready for publication. Trusting that the Illustrative Processes which he has exhibited may prove as efficient in other hands as they have proved in his own, I have great pleasure in recommending the work, being satisfied that a better Arithmetician and a more judicious Teacher than Mr Smith is not to be found."

Practical Arithmetic for Senior Classes; being a Continuation of the above. By HENRY G. C. SMITH. 2s. *Answers*, 6d. KEY, 2s. 6d.

. *The Exercises in both works, which are copious and original, have been constructed so as to combine interest with utility. They are accompanied by illustrative processes.*

English Journal of Education.—"There are, it must be confessed, few good books on arithmetic, but this certainly appears to us to be one of them. It is evidently the production of a practical man, who desires to give his pupils a thorough knowledge of his subject. The Rules are laid down with much precision and simplicity, and the illustrations cannot fail to make them intelligible to boys of ordinary capacity."

Lessons in Arithmetic for Junior Classes. By JAMES TROTTER. 86 pages, 6d. in stiff wrapper. *Answers*, 6d.

This book was *carefully revised*, and *enlarged* by the introduction of Simple Examples of the various rules, worked out at length and fully explained, and of Practical Exercises, by the Author's son, Mr Alexander Trotter, Teacher of Mathematics, etc., Edinburgh; and to the present edition Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage have been added.

Lessons in Arithmetic for Advanced Classes; being a Continuation of the Lessons in Arithmetic for Junior Classes. Containing Vulgar and Decimal Fractions; Simple and Compound Proportion, with their Applications; Simple and Compound Interest; Involution and Evolution, etc. By ALEXANDER TROTTER. New Edition, with Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage. 76 pages, 6d. in stiff wrapper. *Answers*, 6d.

Each subject is also accompanied by an example fully worked out and minutely explained. The Exercises are numerous and practical.

A Complete System of Arithmetic, Theoretical and Practical; containing the Fundamental Rules, and their Application to Mercantile Computations; Vulgar and Decimal Fractions; Involution and Evolution; Series; Annuities, Certain and Contingent. By Mr TROTTER. 3s. KEY, 4s. 6d.

* * *All the 3400 Exercises in this work are new. They are applicable to the business of real life, and are framed in such a way as to lead the pupil to reason on the matter. There are upwards of 200 Examples wrought out at length and minutely explained.*

Ingram's Principles of Arithmetic, and their Application to Business explained in a Popular Manner, and clearly Illustrated by Simple Rules and Numerous Examples. *Remodelled and greatly Enlarged*, with Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage. By ALEXANDER TROTTER, Teacher of Mathematics, etc., Edinburgh. 1s. KEY, 2s.

Each rule is followed by an example wrought out at length, and is illustrated by a great variety of practical questions applicable to business.

Melrose's Concise System of Practical Arithmetic; containing the Fundamental Rules and their Application to Mercantile Calculations; Vulgar and Decimal Fractions; Exchanges; Involution and Evolution; Progressions; Annuities, Certain and Contingent, etc. *Re-arranged, Improved, and Enlarged*, with Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage. By ALEXANDER TROTTER, Teacher of Mathematics, etc., in Edinburgh. 1s. 6d. KEY, 2s. 6d.

Each Rule is followed by an example worked out at length, and minutely explained, and by numerous practical Exercises.

Hutton's Arithmetic and Book-keeping. 2s. 6d.

Hutton's Book-keeping, by TROTTER. 2s.

Sets of Ruled Writing Books,—Single Entry, per set, 1s. 6d.; Double Entry, per set, 1s. 6d.

Stewart's First Lessons in Arithmetic, for Junior Classes; containing Exercises in Simple and Compound Quantities arranged so as to enable the Pupil to perform the Operations with the greatest facility and correctness. With Exercises on the Proposed Decimal Coinage. 6d. stiff wrapper. *Answers*, 6d.

Stewart's Practical Treatise on Arithmetic, Arranged for Pupils in Classes. With Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage. 1s. 6d. This work includes the Answers; with Questions for Examination. KEY, 2s.

Gray's Introduction to Arithmetic; with Exercises on the proposed Decimal Coinage. 10d. bound in leather. KEY, 2s.

Lessons in Arithmetic for Junior Classes. By JAMES MACLAREN, Master of the Classical and Mercantile Academy, Hamilton Place, Edinburgh. 6d. stiff wrapper.

The Answers are annexed to the several Exercises.

Maclaren's Improved System of Practical Book-KEEPING, arranged according to Single Entry, and adapted to General Business. Exemplified in one set of Books. 1s. 6d.

A Set of Ruled Writing Books, expressly adapted for this work, 1s. 6d.

Scott's First Lessons in Arithmetic. 6d. stiff wrapper.
Answers, 6d.

Scott's Mental Calculation Text-book. Pupil's Copy, 6d.
Teacher's Copy, 6d.

Copy Books, in a Progressive Series. By R. SCOTT, late Writing-Master, Edinburgh. Each containing 24 pages. Price: Medium paper, 3d; Post paper, 4d.

Scott's Copy Lines, in a Progressive Series, 4d. each.

The Principles of Gaelic Grammar; with the Definitions, Rules, and Examples, clearly expressed in English and Gaelic; containing copious Exercises for Reading the Language, and for Parsing and Correction. By the Rev. JOHN FORBES, late Minister of Sleat. 3s. 6d.

MATHEMATICS, NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, ETC.

Ingram's Concise System of Mathematics, Theoretical and Practical, for Schools and Private Students. Improved by JAMES TROTTER. With 340 Woodcuts. 4s. 6d. KEY, 3s. 6d.

Trotter's Manual of Logarithms and Practical MATHEMATICS, for Students, Engineers, Navigators, and Surveyors. 3s.

A Complete System of Mensuration; for Schools, Private Students, and Practical Men. By ALEX. INGRAM. Improved by JAMES TROTTER. 2s.

Ingram and Trotter's Euclid. 1s. 6d.

Ingram and Trotter's Elements of Algebra, Theoretical and Practical, for Schools and Private Students. 3s.

Introductory Book of the Sciences. By JAMES NICOL, F.R.S.E., F.G.S., Professor of Natural History in the University of Aberdeen. With 106 Woodcuts. 1s. 6d.

Dr Lees' Catechism of Natural Philosophy. In which the General Doctrines of that Science are explained in a Popular Form. With 117 Woodcuts. In Two Parts, each 9d. or 1s. bound.

ITALIAN.

Theoretical and Practical Italian Grammar; with Numerous Exercises and Examples, illustrative of every Rule, and a Selection of Phrases and Dialogues. By E. LEMMI, LL.D., Italian Tutor to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales. 5s.—KEY, 5s.

From COUNT SAFFI, *Professor of the Italian Language at Oxford.*—"I have adopted your Grammar for the elementary instruction of students of Italian in the Taylor Institution, and find it admirably adapted to the purpose, as well for the order and clearness of the rules, as for the practical excellence and ability of the exercises with which you have enriched it."

School Register. PUPIL'S DAILY REGISTER OF MARKS.
Improved Edition. Containing Spaces for 48 Weeks; to which are added, Spaces for a Summary and Order of Merit for each month, for each quarter, and for the year. Adapted for Schools in general, and constructed so as to furnish information required by Government. 2d.

School Register of Attendance, Absence, and Fees;
adapted to the Provisions of the Revised Code, by MORRIS F. MYRON. Each folio will serve 50 pupils for a Quarter. 1s.

School Songs. By T. M. HUNTER, Director to the Association for the Revival of Sacred Music in Scotland. With Preface by Rev. JAMES CURRIE, M.A., Principal of the Church of Scotland Training College, Edinburgh.

SCHOOL SONGS FOR JUNIOR CLASSES: 60 Songs, principally set for two voices. 4d.

Ditto

Ditto

Second Series: 62 Songs, 4d.

SCHOOL SONGS FOR ADVANCED CLASSES: 44 Songs, principally set for three voices. 6d.

Ditto

Ditto

Second Series: 46 Songs, 6d.

School Psalmody; Containing 58 pieces, arranged for three Voices. 4d.

CLASS-BOOKS BY CHAS. HENRI SCHNEIDER.

F.E.I.S., M.C.P.; French Master in the High School, Edinburgh, the School of Arts and Watt's Institution, the Merchant Maiden Institution, etc.; French Examiner to the Educational Institute of Scotland.

The Edinburgh High School French Conversation-GRAMMAR, arranged on an entirely New Plan, with Questions and Answers. *Dedicated, by permission, to Professor Max Müller.* 3s. 6d. **KEY,** 2s. 6d.

The Edinburgh High School New Practical French READER: Being a Collection of Pieces from the best French Authors. With Questions and Notes, enabling both Master and Pupil to converse in French. 3s. 6d.

The Edinburgh High School French Manual of CONVERSATION and COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE. 2s. 6d.

In this work, Phrases and Idiomatic Expressions which are used most frequently in the intercourse of every-day life have been carefully collected. Care has been taken to avoid what is trivial and obsolete, and to introduce all the modern terms relative to railways, steamboats, and travelling in general.

Écrin Littéraire; being a Collection of **LIVELY ANECDOTES, JEUX DE MOTS, ENIGMAS, CHARADES, POETRY,** etc., to serve as Readings, Dictation, and Recitation. 3s. 6d. *Now Ready.*

Letter from PROFESSOR MAX MÜLLER, University of Oxford, May 1887.

"MY DEAR SIR.—I am very happy to find that my anticipations as to the success of your Grammar have been fully realized. Your book does not require any longer a godfather; but if you wish me to act as such, I shall be most happy to have my name connected with your prosperous child.—Yours very truly,
MAX MÜLLER.

"To Mons. C. H. Schneider, Edinburgh High School."

The French New Testament. The most approved **PROTESTANT VERSION,** and the one in general use in the **FRENCH REFORMED CHURCHES.** Pocket Edition, roan, gilt edges, 1s. 6d.

Chambaud's Fables Choies; With a Vocabulary containing the meaning of all the Words. By SCOT and WELLS. 2s.

Le Petit Fablier: With Vocabulary. For Junior Classes. By G. M. GIBSON, late Rector of the Bathgate Academy. 1s. 6d.

French Extracts for Beginners. With a Vocabulary and an Introduction. By F. A. WOLSKI, Master of the Foreign Language Department in the High School of Glasgow. 2s. 6d.

Wolski's New French Grammar. With copious Exercises. 3s. 6d.

Standard Pronouncing Dictionary of the French and ENGLISH LANGUAGES. In Two PARTS. Part I. *French and English*.—Part II. *English and French*. By GABRIEL SURENNE, late Professor in the Scottish Naval and Military Academy, etc. The First Part comprehends Words in Common Use, Terms connected with Science and the Fine Arts, Historical, Geographical, and Biographical Names, with the Pronunciation according to the French Academy and the most eminent Lexicographers and Grammarians. The Second Part is an ample Dictionary of English words, with the Pronunciation according to the best Authorities. The whole is preceded by a Practical and Comprehensive System of French Pronunciation. 7s. 6d., strongly bound.

The Pronunciation is shown by a different spelling of the Words.

Surenne's French-English and English-French DICTIONARY, without the Pronunciation. 3s. 6d. strongly bound.

Surenne's Fenelon's Telemaque. 2 vols, 1s. each, stiff wrapper; or bound together, 2s. 6d.

Surenne's Voltaire's Histoire de Charles XII. 1s. stiff wrapper; or 1s. 6d. bound.

Surenne's Voltaire's Histoire de Russie sous Pierre LE GRAND. 2 vols, 1s. each, stiff wrapper; or bound together, 2s. 6d.

Surenne's Voltaire's la Henriade. 1s. stiff wrapper; or 1s. 6d. bound.

Surenne's New French Dialogues; With an Introduction to French Pronunciation, a Copious Vocabulary, and Models of Epistolary Correspondence. *Pronunciation marked throughout.* 2s.

Surenne's New French Manual and Traveller's COMPANION. Containing an Introduction to French Pronunciation; a Copious Vocabulary; a very complete Series of Dialogues on Topics of Every-day Life; Dialogues on the Principal Continental Tours, and on the Objects of Interest in Paris; with Models of Epistolary Correspondence. Intended as a Class-book for the Student and a Guide to the Tourist. Map. *Pronunciation marked throughout.* 3s. 6d.

Surenne's Pronouncing French Primer. Containing the Principles of French Pronunciation, a Vocabulary of easy and familiar Words, and a selection of Phrases. 1s. 6d. stiff wrapper.

Surenne's Moliere's l'Avare: Comédie. 1s. stiff wrapper; or 1s. 6d. bound.

Surenne's Moliere's le Bourgeois Gentilhomme: Comédie. 1s. stiff wrapper; or 1s. 6d. bound.

Surenne's Moliere's le Misanthrope: Comédie. Le MARIAGE FORCE: Comédie. 1s. stiff wrapper; or 1s. 6d. bound.

Surenne's French Reading Instructor, *Reduced to 2s. 6d.*

This forms a complete course of French Reading in Prose and Poetry, from easy lessons to those adapted for advanced pupils. With Vocabulary to the early lessons, Historical and Geographical Vocabulary, and a Key to French Pronunciation.

Hallard's French Grammar. 3s. 6d. KEY, 3s. 6d.

Grammar of the French Language. By AUGUSTE BELJAME, B.A., LL.B., Vice-Principal of the Paris International College. 2s.

Beljame's Four Hundred Practical Exercises. Being a Sequel to Beljame's French Grammar. 2s.

* * Both Books bound together, 3s. 6d.

The whole work has been composed with a view to conversation, a great number of the Exercises being in the form of questions and answers.

First French Class-book, or a Practical and Easy Method of learning the FRENCH LANGUAGE, consisting of a Series of FRENCH and ENGLISH EXERCISES, progressively and grammatically arranged, by JULES CARON, F.E.I.S., French Teacher, Edin. 1s. KEY, 1s.

This work follows the natural mode in which a child learns to speak its own language, by repeating the same words and phrases in a great variety of forms until the pupil becomes familiar with their use.

Caron's First French Reading-book; being Easy and Interesting Lessons, progressively arranged: with a Copious Vocabulary of the Words and Idioms in the text. 1s.

Athenæum.—"Well adapted for familiarizing the reader with correct models of French, as it is now written and spoken."

Caron's Principles of French Grammar, with numerous Exercises. 2s. KEY, 2s.

Spectator.—"May be recommended for clearness of exposition, gradual progression, and a distinct exhibition to the mind through the eye by means of typographical display: the last an important point where the subject admits of it."

An Easy Grammar of the French Language; with EXERCISES AND DIALOGUES. By JOHN CHRISTISON, Teacher of Modern Languages. 1s. 4d. KEY, 8d.

Christison's Recueil de Fables et Contes Choisis, à l'Usage de la Jeunesse. 1s. 4d.

Christison's Fleury's Histoire de France, Racontée à la Jeunesse. With Translations of the more difficult and idiomatic Passages. 2s. 6d.

EDINBURGH ACADEMY CLASS-BOOKS.

THE acknowledged merit of these school-books, and the high reputation of the seminary from which they emanate, almost supersede the necessity of any recommendation. The "Latin" and "Greek Rudiments" form an introduction to these languages at once simple, perspicuous, and comprehensive. The "Latin Rudiments" contain an *Appendix*, which renders the use of a separate work on Grammar quite unnecessary; and the *list of anomalous verbs* in the "Greek Rudiments" is believed to be more extensive and complete than any that has yet appeared in School Grammars of the language. In the "Latin Delectus" and "Greek Extracts" the sentences have been arranged strictly on the *progressive principle*, increasing in difficulty with the advancement of the Pupil's knowledge; while the *Vocabularies* contain an explanation not only of every word, but also of every *difficult expression* which is found in the works,—thus rendering the acquisition of the Latin and Greek languages both easy and agreeable. The Selections from Cicero embrace the portions of his works which are best adapted for Scholastic tuition.

1. Rudiments of the Latin Language. 2s.

* * *This work forms an introduction to the language, at once simple, perspicuous, and comprehensive.*

2. Latin Delectus; with a Vocabulary containing an Explanation of every Word and Difficult Expression which occurs in the Text. 3s. 6d.**3. Rudiments of the Greek Language. 3s. 6d.****4. Greek Extracts; with a Vocabulary containing an Explanation of every Word and of the more Difficult Passages in the Text. 3s. 6d.****5. Selections from Cicero. 3s.****6. Selecta e Poetis Latinis; including Extracts from Plautus, Terence, Lucretius, Catullus, Persius, Lucan, Martial, Juvenal, etc. 3s.**

Greek Syntax; with a Rationale of the Constructions, by JAMES CLYDE, LL.D., one of the Classical Masters of the Edinburgh Academy. With Prefatory Notice by JOHN S. BLACKIE, Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh. 4s.

Greek Grammar for the Use of Colleges and Schools. By Professor GEDDES, University of Aberdeen. 4s.

The author has endeavoured to combine the clearness and conciseness of the older Greek Grammars with the accuracy and fulness of more recent ones.

DR HUNTER'S CLASSICS.

1. **Hunter's Ruddiman's Rudimenta.** 1s. 6d.
2. **Hunter's Sallust; with Footnotes and Translations.** 1s. 6d.
3. **Hunter's Virgil; with Notes and other Illustrations.** 2s. 6d.
4. **Hunter's Horace.** 2s.
5. **Hunter's Livy. Books XXI. to XXV. With Critical and Explanatory Notes.** 4s.

Latin Prose Composition: The Construction of Clauses, with Illustrations from Cicero and Cæsar; a Vocabulary containing an Explanation of every Word in the Text; and an Index Verborum. By JOHN MASSIE, A.M. 3s. 6d.

Dymock's Cæsar; with illustrative Notes, a Historical and Geographical Index, and a Map of Ancient Gaul. 4s.

Dymock's Sallust; with Explanatory Footnotes and a Historical and Geographical Index. 2s.

Cæsar; with Vocabulary explaining every Word in the Text, Notes, Map, and Historical Memoir. By WILLIAM M'DOWALL, late Inspector of the Heriot Foundation Schools, Edinburgh. 3s.

M'Dowall's Virgil; with Memoir, Notes, and Vocabulary explaining every Word in the Text. 3s.

Neilson's Eutropius et Aurelius Victor; with Vocabulary containing the meaning of every Word that occurs in the Text. Revised by WM. M'DOWALL. 2s.

Lectiones Selectae: or, Select Latin Lessons in Morality, History, and Biography: for the use of Beginners. With a Vocabulary explaining every Word in the Text. By C. MELVILLE, late of the Grammar School, Kirkcaldy. 1s. 6d.

Macgowan's Lessons in Latin Reading. IN TWO PARTS. Part I., *Improved* by H. FRASER HALL, LL.D. 2s. 17th Edition. Part II. 2s. 6d. The Two Courses furnish a complete Latin Library of Reading, Grammar, and Composition for Beginners, consisting of Lessons which advance in difficulty by easy gradations, accompanied by Exercises in English to be turned into Latin. Each volume contains a complete Dictionary adapted to itself.

Mair's Introduction to Latin Syntax : with Illustrations by Rev. ALEX. STEWART, LL.D.; an English and Latin Vocabulary, for the assistance of the Pupil in translating into Latin the English Exercises on each Rule; and an Explanatory Vocabulary of Proper Names. 3s.

Stewart's Cornelius Nepos; with Notes, Chronological Tables, and a Vocabulary explaining every Word in the Text. 3s.

Ainsworth's Latin Dictionary. Edited by WM. DUNCAN, E.C.P. 1070 pages. 9s. strongly bound.

This edition contains a copious index of proper names, a complete list of Latin abbreviations, and other important and useful tables.

Duncan's Greek Testament. 3s. 6d.

Beza's Latin Testament. Revised by the late ADAM DICKINSON, A.M. 3s. 6d.

Xenophon's Anabasis, Books I. and II.; with Vocabulary giving an Explanation of every Word in the Text, and a Translation of the more difficult Phrases. By JAMES FERGUSON, M.D., late Rector of the West End Academy, Aberdeen, 2s. 6d.

Athenæum.—"The text of this admirable little work is that of Dindorf, and the punctuation generally that of Poppo. Its principal excellence as an introduction to the study of Greek consists in the copious, correct, and well arranged Vocabulary at the end. This contains good translations of difficult passages, with exact information upon points of antiquities derived from the best and most modern authorities."

Grammatical Exercises on the Moods, Tenses, and SYNTAX OF ATTIC GREEK. With a Vocabulary containing the meaning of every Word in the Text. On the plan of Professor Ferguson's Latin "Grammatical Exercises." By Dr FERGUSON. 3s. 6d. KEY, 3s. 6d.

. This work is intended to follow the Greek Rudiments.

Homer's Iliad—Greek, from Bekker's Text. Edited by the Rev. W. VERTCH, Author of "Greek Verbs, Irregular and Defective," etc. 3s. 6d.

Homer's Iliad, Books I., VI., XX., and XXIV.; with Vocabulary giving an Explanation of every Word in the Text, and a Translation of the more difficult Passages. By Dr FERGUSON. 3s. 6d.

LATIN ELEMENTARY WORKS AND CLASSICS.

Edited by **GEORGE FERGUSON, LL.D.**, lately Professor of Humanity in King's College and University of Aberdeen, and formerly one of the Masters of the Edinburgh Academy.

1. **Ferguson's Grammatical Exercises.** With Notes, and a Vocabulary explaining every Word in the Text. 2s. Key, 2s.
2. **Ferguson's Introductory Latin Delectus;** Intended to follow the Latin Rudiments; with a Vocabulary containing an Explanation of every Word and of every Difficult Expression. 2s.
3. **Ferguson's Ovid's Metamorphoses.** With Explanatory Notes and an Index, containing Mythological, Geographical, and Historical Illustrations. 2s. 6d.
4. **Ferguson's Ciceronis Orationes Selectae.** Containing pro Lege Manilia, IV. in Catilinam, pro A. L. Archia, pro T. A. Milone. Ex Orellii recensione. 1s. 6d.
5. **Ferguson's Ciceronis Cato Major sive de Senectute, Laelius sive de Amicitia, Somnium Scipionis, et Epistolae Selectae.** Ex Orellii recensione. 1s. 6d.
6. **Ferguson's Ciceronis de Officiis.** Ex Orellii recensione. 1s. 6d.

The Port-Royal Logic. Translated from the French, with Introduction, Notes, and Appendix. By **THOMAS SPENCER BAYNES, B.A.**, Professor of Logic, Rhetoric, and Metaphysics, United College of St Salvator and St Leonard, St Andrews. 4s.

A SPECIMEN COPY OF ANY WORK WILL BE SENT POST FREE ON RECEIPT OF THE RETAIL PRICE IN POSTAGE STAMPS.

PUBLISHED BY OLIVER AND BOYD, EDINBURGH; c
SOLD ALSO BY SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, AND CO., LONDON, AND ALL BOOKSELLERS.

DR DOUGLAS'S EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

In 18mo, 180 pages, price 1s. 6d.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

**WITH A SERIES OF PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES FOR THE
USE OF SCHOOLS.**

"In preparing this work the object of the author has been to produce a Text-book on English Grammar thoroughly adapted to the purposes of school instruction. Simplicity of expression and methodical arrangement have been uniformly aimed at; and copious exercises for the practice of pupils have been introduced throughout."—*Extract from Preface.*

"We have introduced your Grammar into this seminary. This we have done after a careful comparison of various text-books, and I feel bound to say that for teaching purposes, yours is the best text-book on Grammar I know."—*The Principal of the Free Church Training College, Glasgow.*

"Its distinguishing qualities are accuracy and simplicity of language, excellency of arrangement, and copiousness of exercises. Its intrinsic merits will soon gain for it an extensive circulation."—*The English Master, Burgh Schools, Brechin.*

"It is carefully compiled, systematically arranged, and embraces all that is necessary in a good English Grammar."—*The Principal, Calne Middle School, Wilts.*

"An excellent little manual of English Grammar, which we have no doubt will become extensively popular wherever its value is known. The rules are uniformly simple and clear in their enunciation, and the exercises have been selected with great care and judgment."—*Banner of Ulster.*

In 18mo, limp cloth, price 6d.

AN INITIATORY GRAMMAR,

FOR THE USE OF JUNIOR CLASSES;

Intended as an Introduction to the above.

"Decidedly the best at the price of any I have met with."—*The Head Master, Holgate Seminary, Yorkshire.*

"Admirably adapted for School use. I shall at once order copies for my classes."—*The Head Master, Grammar School, Tewkesbury.*

"It contains the best and tersest explanations for learners that have appeared."—*The Head Master, Belle Vue House School, Bristol.*

"The Initiatory Grammar is an especial favourite with my junior boys."—*The Head Master, Milton House Academy, Lewes.*

"Your Initiatory Grammar I think an admirable book, well suited for National Schools."—*The Head Master, Boys' National School, Wisbeach.*

DR DOUGLAS'S EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

In limp cloth, 90 pages, price 6d.

AN INTRODUCTORY GEOGRAPHY, FOR THE USE OF JUNIOR PUPILS.

"Among the many elementary works on Geography which have come under my notice, I have found none at all equal to it for junior pupils."—*Henry Webb, Esq., College School, Croydon.*

"One of the cheapest, as I think it the best Junior Geography I have seen. I have ordered a supply of it for my own pupils."—*R. J. Manson, Esq., Heighington Academy, near Darlington.*

"I am quite delighted with it. It is by far the best book of its kind extant. I intend to introduce it very largely at once."—*Daniel M'Laren, Esq., Wellington Place Academy, Glasgow.*

"A beautiful little book. I shall at once introduce it to my school."—*The Head Master, Wesleyan School, Southport, Lancashire.*

"I am at this very time trying to select a book for my junior classes, and on comparison of yours with several others am disposed to give it the preference. The facts contained in the book and the language in which they are clothed seem to me to be well adapted for young minds."—*Thomas Russell, Esq., A.M., Magdalen College School, Brackley.*

"Your Introductory Geography I like very much, and have adopted it in my school."—*William Hartley, Esq., Banbury Academy, Oxfordshire.*

"I can bear testimony to its great value as a school-book. I have permanently adopted it here."—*The Head Master, Grammar School, Great Blencowe, Penrith.*

"Being greatly pleased with your Introductory Geography, I purpose introducing it for the use of the younger boys."—*The Head Master, Middleton College, Cork.*

"We use your Introductory Geography. It is an admirable little work."—*The Head Master, Carlton Road School, Burnley.*

In Preparation, and shortly will be published,

A TEXT-BOOK OF GEOGRAPHY;

CONTAINING THE

PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY OF ALL THE COUNTRIES
ON THE GLOBE,

Compiled from the most recent Authorities and systematically arranged for
the use of more Advanced Pupils.

In this Text-book the recent changes on the Continent of Europe are fully detailed, and the Divisions of the Countries will be found adapted to the present time.